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ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography describes studies and reports on issues related to family literacy in multiple contexts. With the exception of five entries, it is limited to programs and studies in the United States. Materials include conceptual discussions, bibliographies, and studies that use experimental, ethnographic, and program evaluative designs. The bibliography is divided into seven parts. Parent-Child Relationships and Reading includes a small group of studies from early child development and early childhood education on issues such as the nature of parent-child interactions, problem solving, impact of maternal teaching strategies, and parenting and child development. Parent-Child Reading/Emergent Literacy presents several studies about parents' literacy, storybook reading, curricular approaches to emergent literacy, and parent-child interaction around reading. Parent and Family Beliefs and Socialization focuses on the role of parents' beliefs about school performance and literacy and implications for literacy socialization. Family and Intergenerational Literacy presents effective approaches. Parent Involvement/Family-School Connections focuses on effects of parent involvement in relation to general school performance and reading. Family and Parent Education describes programs designed to support the social development of families. Culture/Context, presents a collection of cross-cultural studies. Each entry consists of author, title, date of publication, title, source, and pagination. (Contains 72 references.) (YLB)

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NATIONAL CENTER ON ADULT LITERACY

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AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN AND OUT OF PROGRAM SETTINGS

Vivian L. Gadsden
Ludo C. P. Scheffer
Joel Hardman
(with assistance from Kafi Laramore,
Kim Loring, and Eileen Waterman-Storer)
University of Pennsylvania

NCAL TECHNICAL REPORT TR94-04
APRIL 1994

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The National Center on Adult Literacy (NCAL) was established in 1990 by the U.S. Department of Education, with co-funding from the Departments of Labor and Health and Human Services. The mission of NCAL addresses three primary challenges: (a) to enhance the knowledge base about adult literacy; (b) to improve the quality of research and development in the field; and (c) to ensure a strong, two-way relationship between research and practice. Through applied research and development and dissemination of the results to researchers, policymakers, and practitioners, NCAL seeks to improve the quality of adult literacy programs and services on a nationwide basis. NCAL serves as a major operating unit of the Literacy Research Center at the University of Pennsylvania.

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Jan 1993	*The Impact of BIB-Spiralling Induced Missing Data Patterns on Goodness-of-Fit Tests in Factor Analysis* David Kaplan *(OP93-1, 18 pages)*
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Nov 1993	*Coalition Building for Adult Literacy: Historical and Organizational Perspectives* Anabel P. Newman, Bernadette Lehman *(TR93-13, 68 pages)*
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Apr 1994	*Understanding Family Literacy: Conceptual Issues Facing the Field* Vivian L. Gadsden *(TR94-02, 32 pages)*
Apr 1994	*Children, Parents, and Families: An Annotated Bibliography on Literacy Development In and Out of Program Settings* Vivian L. Gadsden *(TR94-04, 84 pages)*

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Contents i
Abstract iii

Introduction 1

A. Parent-Child Relationships and Reading 3

B. Parent-Child Reading/Emergent Literacy 7

C. Parent and Family Beliefs and Socialization 22

D. Family and Intergenerational Literacy 29

E. Parent Involvement and Family-School Connections 44

F. Family and Parent Education 55

G. Contextual/Cultural Issues 65

References 71

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Abstract

This annotated bibliography describes selected studies and reports on a range of issues related to family literacy in multiple contexts and includes seven categories of citations on topics ranging from parent-child relationships to intergenerational literacy and cultural/contextual studies. The works cited represent an effort to clarify the interdisciplinary nature of family literacy, which includes the fields of reading, developmental psychology, and sociology. The selected studies provide different perspectives on family and parent-child literacy and contribute to an interdisciplinary database on issues of adult and family-related literacy efforts as the field of family literacy emerges.

7

INTRODUCTION

PURPOSE

The current emphasis on family literacy reflects an increased interest in literacy as a research domain, an area of practice, and a focus of policy. Particularly in recent years, the larger field of literacy has experienced dramatic expansions, broadening the once narrow definition of literacy as simply the ability to read and write or as activities occurring in K-12 contexts alone. As a result, the field has integrated a lifespan perspective, which defines literacy as having many uses and purposes: as a range of reading, writing, and problem-solving activities and abilities; as a developmental and social process for children and adults; as acts occurring in a variety of cultural contexts and developed in different social settings (e.g., school, home, community, and workplace); as learning for personal development and preparation for life transitions; and as a way to promote school readiness in children and to assist them in school.

Issues in what is commonly referred to as *family literacy* attempt to locate multiple perspectives on literacy within the context of the family. In doing so, the field has experienced growth, at some times along side of current efforts in adult literacy and, at other times, as one component of the adult literacy movement. The roots of family literacy can be found in a large body of research and practice from the 1970s and 1980s, primarily in fields ranging from adult literacy and emergent reading to family-school relations and parent-child interactions. This research either studied the effects of parents' support on children's reading development or discussed the need for a better understanding of home and school relationships in literacy and school learning.

Family literacy appears to be developing through two different approaches. Under the first approach, the focus is on K-12 literacy development; efforts examine the contributions of parents to their children's use of print. Under the second approach, issues flow from adult literacy initiatives to children's literacy achievement; the primary focus is on how adults (generally parents) use literacy to respond to their own personal needs (which may include family, home, and school) and support educational development for their children and other family members. Despite their different points of origin, these approaches have led to innovative work in family literacy that combines the most promising features of child and adult literacy to understand how to assist adults and children in gaining access to literacy and expanding literacy abilities over time and generations. This annotated bibliography brings together selected studies from research and practice that relate directly and indirectly to literacy development among children, parents, and families both in and out of school and program contexts.

For several reasons, the authors decided not to use the title *family literacy* to describe the content of the bibliography. First, family literacy, as currently described, is a relatively new concept, with changing definitions that decrease the opportunities for conceptual clarity; as a result, family literacy means different things to different people. Second, much of the effort in the field has focused on either how to fund programs for parents and children, how to coordinate funding from various federal and state programs to provide literacy assistance to families, or how to integrate family literacy initiatives into existing programs such as Chapter 1, Head Start, and Even Start. Third, disproportionate numbers of family literacy programs seem to serve a parent and child working together on a literacy task or separately on their individual literacy needs. Rarely do programs focus on how adults and children in the programs use literacy learning outside of school or how the material learned in programs is used by participants to help family members who do not participate. Thus, there are few implications for family literacy learning in general. Finally, many, though not all, of the discussions have focused either on the compensatory nature of family literacy and reducing intergenerational poverty, or on the notion that parents with low literacy are unable to make meaningful contributions to their children's literacy development. To some degree, both views restrict the possibilities for the field and provide unrealistic expectations about the immediate advantages of literacy. Although this bibliography may be characterized by some or all of the statements above, it is neither intended to address any one point nor constrained by these views of family literacy.

The authors have combined the studies in this bibliography for two purposes. One purpose is to bring together research that provides different perspectives on literacy in families, perspectives specifically from parents and children. A second purpose is to contribute to an interdisciplinary database on issues of parent, adult, and family-related literacy efforts as the field of family literacy emerges.

APPROACH

Because the purpose of this bibliography is to focus on the conceptual and empirical studies, few program descriptions are included. The task of identifying programs, while very important, is beyond the scope of this bibliography. It would require a different focus and would result in volumes of entries. With the exception of five entries, the review was limited to books and articles of programs and studies in the United States. Searches were conducted in the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), the Psychological Literature database, the Sociofile database, and the social work resource, using the key words *family literacy*, *parent-child literacy*, *parent-child reading*, *emergent reading*, *parents' beliefs*, *parent-child interaction*, *home-school connections*, *intergenerational literacy*, and *family support*; ESL program research was not included. To locate books, the authors conducted a Library of Congress search using the same key words. With three exceptions, all of the studies were written in the 1980s and 1990s. The authors consulted existing bibliographies, such as Nash's *English Family Literacy*, as well as materials from Even Start, the National Center for Family Literacy, and federally contracted studies written by a variety of researchers.

The materials in this bibliography include conceptual discussions, bibliographies, and studies that use experimental, ethnographic, and program evaluative designs. The literature catalogue is divided into seven parts. Part A, Parent-Child Relationships and Reading, includes a small group of studies from early child development and early childhood education that discuss issues such as the nature of parent-child interactions (typically mother-child), problem solving, the impact of maternal teaching strategies, and parenting and child development, including mothers' expectations. Part B, Parent-Child Reading/Emergent Literacy, presents several studies about parents' literacy, storybook reading, curricular approaches to emergent literacy, and parent-child interaction around reading. Part C, Parent and Family Beliefs and Socialization, focuses on the role of parents' beliefs about school performance and literacy and the implications for literacy socialization. Part D, Family and Intergenerational Literacy, presents reviews, studies, and programs that have reported effective approaches. Part E, Parent Involvement/Family-School Connections, focuses on the effects of parent involvement in relation to general school performance and reading. Part F, Family and Parent Education, describes programs designed to support the social development of families. Part G, Culture/Context, presents a collection of cross-cultural studies; however, cross-cultural studies are also interspersed throughout the bibliography.

A. PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS AND READING

Belsky, J., Taylor, D. G., & Ricovine, M. (1984). The Pennsylvania Infant and Family Development Project II: The development of reciprocal interaction in the mother-infant dyad. *Child Development, 55*, 706-717.

The two primary purposes of this study were (a) to determine whether a time-sampling, frequency count procedure for assessing mother-infant interaction could capture a set of theoretically important dimensions, one of which was reciprocal interaction, and (b) to advance understanding of the development of mother-infant relationships by examining both mean change and the stability of individual differences in mother-infant interaction. The subjects of the study were 74 infants and their mothers, who were observed when the children were one month, three months, and nine months old. The authors of the study suggest that this recording procedure is useful, at least in measuring "reciprocal interaction." Results indicate that even while little change and individual stability characterize reciprocal interaction in general, the make-up of this particular dyadic construct changes over time. The mean level of reciprocal interaction remains the same, but the individual behaviors of the mother and child change; infants begin to use more behaviors, such as making eye contact, to maintain the reciprocal interaction as they grow older.

Blechman, E. A., & McEnroe, M. J. (1985). Effective family problem solving. *Child Development*, *56*, 429-437.

In this study, the authors looked at how families use individual abilities, especially those of children, to solve problems. The researchers presented three problems—tower building, 20 questions, and plan-something-together—to 100 families with children in grades two to six. Direct observation of the whole family was conducted, and academic and social competence scores for the target child, who was always the youngest in the family, were obtained. The target children were 45 boys and 52 girls whose ages ranged from 7 to 13 years. The results suggest that the effective families took a longer period of time to negotiate a solution and used strategies more often than less effective families. Family members also did not seek immediate gratification and had a greater attention span. At the same time, families with two parents excelled more often at the task when compared with one-parent families, but parental education, occupation, and social status were weak predictors of success.

Cicirelli, V. G. (1976). Mother-child and sibling-sibling interactions on a problem-solving task. *Child Development*, *47*, 588-596.

The purpose of this study was to discover (a) whether a difference exists in the interaction between child and helper on a problem-solving task depending on whether the mother or an older sibling did the helping and (b) whether these behaviors were related to the sibling structure of the family. Eight first-grade children with third- or fourth-grade siblings were observed during the task, half of them during interaction with the mother, half of them during interaction with the older sibling. Mothers gave more explanation and feedback than did older siblings, and older sisters gave more explanation and feedback than did older brothers. Mothers gave more explanation and feedback to children who had older brothers than to those who had older sisters. Children from large families sought and received more help than did children from small families.

Laosa, L. (1980). Maternal teaching strategies and cognitive styles in Chicano families. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *72*, 45-54.

This study investigated the relationship between educational level/occupational status and maternal teaching strategies in 43 Chicano mother-child dyads. Observations were made of Chicano mothers teaching their 5-year-old children how to duplicate a tinker toy model. Results showed no correlation between occupational status and teaching style. However, a positive correlation was found between educational level and the mother's use of praise, visual cues, and inquiry. Mothers with lower educational status used more modeling, visual cues, and directives. An inverse relationship existed between educational level and the mother's use of negative physical interaction with male children.

Parks, P. L., & Smeriglio, V. L. (1986). Relationships among parenting knowledge, quality of stimulation in the home, and infant development. *Family Relations*, *35*, 411-416.

Relationships among parenting knowledge, quality of stimulation in the home environment, and infant developmental performance were investigated in three different socioeconomic status groups. More than 120 families with 6-month-old infants participated. The authors found that in low socioeconomic status families, parenting knowledge was significantly associated with quality of stimulation in the home environment, which in turn was significantly related to infant developmental performance. The authors argued that when developing parenting programs, the importance of specific infant care-giving practices for specific developmental outcomes should be emphasized.

Renshaw, P. (1989). Reading with rather than to children: Predicting reading acquisition from parental strategies and task interpretation. Paper presented as part of the symposium, *Individual Differences In Learning And Problem Solving In Social Contexts*, at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Kansas City, MO.

In this paper, the author suggested that learning is a progression towards self-regulated and active engagement in ongoing cultural processes. Renshaw tested this hypothesis in relation to how children learn in a book reading session. Twenty-nine preschoolers (13 boys, 16 girls) between 4 1/2 and 5 1/2 years of age and their mothers participated in the study. Each mother read two books with her child. Afterwards, the mothers were briefly interviewed regarding issues related to the reading, the family, and the child. Book reading sessions were videotaped. Results indicated that mothers who *read with*, instead of *read to*, their children employed strategies of structure, elaboration, and metacognitive feedback. These strategies created opportunities for participation and social exchange between mother and child. The author argued that the children of mothers who used the *reading with* style were more knowledgeable about the conventions of books and print.

Rescorla, L., Hyson, M., Hirsh-Pasek, K., & Cone, J. (1991). *Academic expectations in mothers of preschool children*. Unpublished manuscript, Bryn Mawr College, Department of Human Development, Bryn Mawr, PA.

This study reports psychometric data from the Educational Attitude Scale, a new instrument designed to tap parental opinions about early academic, artistic, athletic, and social experiences. Mothers of 371

12

middle-class prekindergarten children completed the survey. Mothers were highly similar in their views about the importance of social experiences, but differed widely in their opinions about early academic instruction for preschoolers. Highly significant differences were found in parents' attitudes when schools were gathered into two groups: those that were high in academic emphasis by community reputation and observed classroom practices and those that were low in academic emphasis. Parents had significantly higher academic expectations than their children's teachers, particularly in schools with low academic emphasis.

Schaefer, E. S., & Edgerton, M. (1985). Parent and child correlates of parental modernity. In I. Sigel (Ed.), *Parental belief systems: The psychological consequences for children* (pp. 287-318). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

A major goal of this research was to contribute to a socioecological perspective on child development, building on theoretical premises of Bronfenbrenner and Vygotsky. A continuing goal was to conceptualize, measure, and analyze child behavior correlates of parents' attitudes, beliefs, values, and self-reports of behavior. Analyses of three studies in this project led to three hypotheses: (a) parental beliefs on child rearing and education are significantly correlated with their academic competence, (b) parental beliefs are significantly correlated with their socioeconomic status, and (c) parent socioeconomic status is significantly correlated with the child's academic competence. Correlations between parental modernity and individual psychological modernity, between parental modernity and intellectual functioning, and between parental modernity and the child's motivation for learning and academic achievement are discussed. The authors stated that parental modernity in beliefs, values, and behaviors positively influences the children's ability to participate effectively in and adapt to changes in modern society.

Taylor, D., & Strickland, D. (1989). Learning from families: Implications for educators and policy. In J. Allen & J. Mason (Eds.), *Risk makers, risk takers, risk breakers: Reducing the risks for young literacy learners* (pp. 251-276). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

In this chapter, the authors explored some of the ways in which the changing patterns of social organization in everyday life affect the literacy learning opportunities of children both at home and at school. A context for the authors' comments is provided through a description of families as educational institutions in which parents and children educate each other. Through this framework, the notion that language and literacy are social processes that cannot be separated from the social development of young children is presented. The impact of stress upon the literacy learning opportunities of children and adults both at home and at school is examined. Based on their interpretation of family literacy, the authors provided recommendations for educators and policymakers for supporting home-school relations, restructuring curricula, and improving the quality of family life.

B. PARENT-CHILD READING/ EMERGENT LITERACY

Bus, A., & IJzendoorn, M. van. (1988). Mother-child interactions, attachment, and emergent literacy: A cross-sectional study. *Child Development, 59*, 1262-1272.

In this study, the authors showed a correlation between attachment and the development of emergent literacy in sixteen 1 1/2-year-old, fifteen 3 1/2-year-old, and fourteen 5 1/2-year-old children. The results suggest that all mothers give informal reading instruction that is narrative for the 1 1/2-year olds and takes on the more formal aspects of reading for the 5 1/2-year olds. The data also suggest that the more securely attached the mother-child relationship, the more productive these interactions are for literacy development and the less time that needs to be spent on disciplinary types of interactions. These findings are important to family literacy projects for two reasons. First, they suggest that mothers should at all times provide some kind of pre-reading instruction even when mothers do not recognize their interactions as necessarily being literacy related. Second, this study illuminates the importance of family literacy projects attending to issues of child development.

Bus, A., & IJzendoorn, M. van. (1989, April). *Storybook reading, attachment, and emergent literacy: Some experimental studies with children from lower socioeconomic status families.* Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Kansas City, MO.

In this paper, the authors explored the relationship between frequency and quality of storybook reading, emergent literacy skills, and attachment security among low-income families. The authors argued that storybook reading appears to be an important child-rearing activity. Two quasi-experimental studies were conducted. The first study demonstrated that 18 Dutch children who were read to infrequently fell behind in emergent literacy skills at a very young age; their interactions during storybook reading showed that they were less involved and more easily distracted. These children also showed more anxious attachment behavior during a reunion with their mothers after being separated for half an hour. This behavior indicated that the virtual absence of storybook reading is related to the existence of an anxious relationship, which also appears to block the emergence of literacy skills. The second study, using the same 18 mothers and children, was an intensive parent intervention program that stimulated the mothers to read more frequently to their toddlers. This program proved effective in improving the quality of storybook reading, although no effect on emergent literacy skills (as measured by reading tests) was found. It is argued that focusing on changing the frequency and quality of maternal storybook reading will lead to the acquisition of literacy skills required at the beginning of formal reading instruction.

Chapman, D. (1986). Let's read another one. In D. Tovey & J. Kerber (Eds.), *Roles in literacy learning* (pp. 10-25). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

In her article, Chapman focused on *emergent reading*, defined as the ways in which young children develop conceptions of themselves as readers. Chapman studied 18 parents with children between the ages of 1 year, 5 months and 4 years, 5 months and from a range of SES and ethnic backgrounds. From her observational study, she concluded that parent-child interaction during book sharing contributed to young children's developing understandings of reading. She identified six book-reading behaviors that occur between parents and children and that help to encourage children in the process of becoming literate: (a) relating book events to the child's life, (b) expanding the child's world, (c) providing information about books and reading, (d) helping the child get meaning from pictures, (e) helping the child get meaning from text, and (f) encouraging reading-like behavior. Through many of these parental techniques, the child develops technical and functional concepts of reading that encourage her/him to behave like a reader and understand how reading is done.

Cochran-Smith, M. (1986). Reading to children: A model for understanding texts. In B. Schiefflin & P. Gilmore (Eds.), *The acquisition of literacy: Ethnographic perspectives* (pp. 35-55). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

In this article, the author investigated preschool children from middle-class, literacy-oriented families and their interactions with teachers during book-sharing events. Cochran-Smith claims that children are not born with inherent abilities to relate their experiences to printed or pictorial text; rather, they must develop "sense-making strategies" in the process of becoming literate. The author characterizes story reading as a conversational event in which text is interwoven with dialogue between the adult and child that connects the child's experience with events in the text. Story reading is also characterized as a negotiated event in which textual meanings are negotiated and co-created by teachers and children. She argues that through this interaction, children develop the scaffolding for understanding decontextualized texts.

Coplon, J., & Worth, D. (1985). Parent-child communication through preschool books. *Social Casework: The Journal of Contemporary Social Work, 66*, 475-481.

In this article, the authors discussed the psychological benefits of parents reading aloud to their children. Benefits for the children include insight, empathy, prophylaxis, parent-child communication, world perceptions and private experiences, and mastery of self and the world. The time set aside to read can also be a quiet, nurturing time between the parent and child. The authors discussed the Lexington model of a program for parents, in which parents can discuss parenting issues in the context of listening to children's stories. The program includes a discussion of either books related to different stages in child development or books that related to special needs, such as death or divorce. It can also be centered around books related to various holidays or to ethnic and minority groups. The Lexington model also teaches parents how to discuss the emotional issues raised by the stories with their children.

Dudley-Marling, C. (1989). The role of parents in children's literacy development: Collaborating with parents of exceptional children. *The Pointer, 34*(4), 16-19.

In this article, the author stated that many preschoolers have experience with and knowledge of print before entering school because of their parents' involvement with them around print. He argued that the parents of many exceptional children may not provide rich literacy-learning environments for their children, either because they do not value literacy or because their child's handicap keeps the child from responding to print in the ways that parents expect. The purpose of this paper is to describe strategies that parents of exceptional children can use to promote their children's literacy skills. These strategies include reading aloud to children, modeling reading behavior, writing to and with children, and responding to children's reading and writing.

Edwards, P. (1989). Supporting lower SES mothers' attempts to provide scaffolding for book reading. In J. Allen & J. Mason (Eds.), *Risk makers, risk breakers, risk takers: Reducing the risks for young literacy learners* (pp. 222-250). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

The purpose of this study was to extend research concerning the interactive behavior between lower SES African-American parent-child dyads during story reading and the children's responses to the readings. The study followed five families during story reading. The development of successful book-reading behaviors was documented on videotape and coded using the categories of the *Mothers Reading to Infants: A New Observational Tool*. The author used direct instruction in better reading strategies during the workshops. The effect of parents' own reading level on their ability to read using more effective storybook-reading strategies was discussed. The author argued that simply informing lower SES parents about the importance of reading to their children is insufficient; they also need to be simultaneously shown how and assisted to become confident readers themselves. Furthermore, the author argued, it should not be assumed that lower income parents cannot acquire the necessary skills to engage in successful book-reading interactions with their children.

Ferreiro, E., & Teberosky, A. (1982). *Literacy before schooling.* Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

This book reports the results of the authors' inquiry into how children develop literacy. Ferreiro and Teberosky devised reading and writing tasks based on Piagetian tradition in order to explore how children come to know literacy and how they view the process of developing written language. Questions abound as to how children learn the various tasks necessary for reading; Ferreiro and Teberosky investigated how children solve these problems as they become literate. All of their tasks and questioning techniques are based on the Piagetian premise that children hypothesize about the nature of reality. The population of the study was Argentinean children of differing socioeconomic status. The first chapter of the book introduces the educational situation in Latin America and the theoretical background for the study. The remaining chapters explore how children progress through various hypotheses about written language. In chapter 2, the authors explore how graphic information becomes readable to the subjects. In chapter 3, they explore how children respond to and interpret the relationship between drawing and writing. Chapter 4 describes how children connect oral to written aspects of language and understand printed words. In chapter 5, they describe how children differentiate between aspects of oral and silent reading. In chapter 6, children's production of written language is discussed and in chapter 7, the authors describe how children cope with dialect differences and correct pronunciation. Chapter 8 summarizes the data and provides implications for instruction.

Flood, J. E. (1977). Parental styles in reading episodes with young children. *The Reading Teacher*, *30*, 864-867.

This study reports on the relationship between parental style of reading to young children and the children's performance on selected prereading tasks. Thirty-six 3 1/2 to 4 1/2 year-old children, attending seven different preschools and representing four ethnic groups and three socioeconomic levels, were selected from the families of 171 parents who responded to a survey. The reading tasks took place in the home and were tape-recorded without the experimenter present. Six important components of the parent-child reading episodes were measured. Based on the results, the author argued that it is important to involve the child in the story-reading process from the beginning (prereading activity) to the end (retelling story).

France, M. G., & Meeks, J. (1988). Parents who can't read: What schools can do. *Education Digest, 53,* 46-49.

The authors of this study bring attention to the fact that a lack of parent involvement, as perceived by teachers, may be the result of parents' low literacy skills. These low literacy skills make it difficult for parents to participate in programs that send home activity sheets, packets, calendars of activities, or reading games. The authors argued that programs need to encourage parents to make better use of practices that do not require advanced literacy skills (e.g., using television to build children's listening and speaking skills). A reading club project in New York City that teaches semiliterate parents how to teach their children to read is discussed. Halfway through the project, parents reported to the authors improvement in their own reading, which was an unexpected benefit. Based on the BBC's British Literacy Campaign, which used radio and television broadcasts to increase literacy levels, the project provided several recommendations on how to include semiliterate parents in school programs and in their children's homework routines.

Goelman, H., Oberg, A., & Smith, F. (Eds.). (1984). *Awakening to literacy.* Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

This book is the written product of a symposium at which 14 researchers with extensive and overlapping backgrounds in many fields discussed preschool children and literacy. The theme of the symposium was "Children's Response to a Literate Environment: Literacy Before Schooling." The participants of the symposium came from and had experience in several countries. The concern of the researchers was focused on the nature of children's interaction with the signs, labels, and other ambient print in their environment, on supportive adult activities such as storytelling, and on children's own insights into the structures and functions of written language. The general topics of the symposium were the cultural setting, family and friends, the child's perspective, methodological issues, and educational implications. The papers presented at the symposium were rewritten and published in this book in three broad groupings. The first section, "Literacy and Culture," contains articles on learning to read culturally, social and institutional influences, family environments, parent-child literacy, and literacy through play. The second section, "Learning to be Literate," focuses on the child as teacher, the development of initial literacy, reading to young children, insights into literacy, and computers and literacy. The final section, "Literacy and Cognition," contains articles on the creative achievement of literacy, the logic of literacy development, difficulties created by written language, how oral language affects literacy, and implications for literacy instruction. This book includes two commentaries: "The Discussion: What Was Said" and "The Symposium: What It Meant."

Goldsmith, E., & Handel, R. D. (1991). *Family reading: Developing the literacies of children and adults.* Paper presented at the Conference on Intergenerational Literacy, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

In this paper, the authors provided a brief description of their design of a workshop series on family reading that used children's literature, active reading strategies, and optional adult selections to develop the literacy of two generations. The Family Reading Model is discussed as an example of a workshop on imaginative stories. A reading list with the appropriate reading strategies is provided as well.

Hiebert, E. (1986). Issues related to home influences on young children's print-related development. In D. B. Yaden, Jr. & S. Templeton (Eds.), *Metalinguistic awareness and beginning literacy* (pp. 145-158). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

This chapter discusses three issues of home environment influences on young children's print-related experiences. The first issue focuses on individual child and parent differences in print-related experiences, such as the influence of parents in creating or responding to children's differences as well as differences among children in how they initiate or respond to different experiences. The second issue focuses on the characteristics of successful home learning experiences, specifically the degree to which these are simultaneously informal and directed. The third issue focuses on the appropriateness of home intervention programs and the content and structure of such programs. In addressing these three issues, the author stresses the influence of home environments on metalinguistic awareness. Directions for future research are suggested.

Hiebert, E., & Adams, C. (1987). Fathers' and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's emergent literacy. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 44*, 25-37.

In this study, the authors examined parents' perceptions of their preschool children's emergent literacy, particularly the relationship between children's characteristics (e.g., age, gender, and achievement) and the predictions of fathers and mothers. Forty-four fathers and mothers were asked to predict their children's performance on six aspects of emergent literacy. Results indicated that both fathers and mothers were found to significantly overestimate their children's performance on over half of the measures. Parents made appropriate differentiations for the age of the child. No significant differences between the accuracy of predictions for girls versus boys were found. On most measures, a higher degree of correlation was found between the predictions of mothers and fathers than between either parent's prediction and the child's performance.

Hill, B. C. (1989). "Books before five" revisited. *Language Arts, 66*, 309-317.

This article discusses the similarities and differences of the natural literacy development of the author's son and the daughter of librarian, Dorothy White. The literacy development of White's daughter was described in *Books Before Five*, published in 1954. The author investigates the differences in early literacy that exist between New Zealand in 1954 (with White's daughter) and city life in 1989 (with Hill's son). The four main differences that exist are in children's literature, media exposure, daily experiences, and travel. The similarities include connections with experiences (transaction), the role of family, love of language and literature (aesthetic stance), and the frequency of reading. The author concludes that by reading aloud and discussing books with children, parents create a strong foundation for early literacy, regardless of the time period.

Hunt-Sutton, M. (1964). Readiness for reading at the kindergarten level. *The Reading Teacher, 17*, 234-240.

This article describes a study in which 134 kindergarten children were tested on visual and auditory perceptual abilities that were considered to be prerequisites for reading readiness. A *center of interest*, containing 18 assorted preprimers, was placed in the classroom. No child was particularly urged to look at the books. After 4 weeks, 46 children had made significant gains in reading levels. After approximately 20 hours of instruction, which started once children had displayed interest and curiosity in the books, the mean grade level for the 46 children was 1.78. Results also provided evidence that developing ability in one area of language arts often tended to reinforce correct patterns in other communication skills. The author stated that the children of parents who showed significantly more interest in education looked at the books more than children whose parents were not interested in education. The author discussed issues of socioeconomic status, family background, and attitude versus aptitude in relation to reading.

Hyson, M. C., Hirsh-Pasek, K., Rescorla, L., Cone, J., & Martell-Boinske, L. (n/d). *Building the scaffold: Parents' involvement in young children's learning*. Unpublished manuscript.

This study, part of a larger project by the first two authors, examined the effects of parental and school expectations on young children's academic, social, creative, and affective development. Data from 55 relatively advantaged parents are reported here. The study examined (a) the content of parents' beliefs about early learning and performance, (b) the association of these beliefs and expectations with parental affective characteristics, and (c) the relationship between parents' expectations and emotional qualities and parents' behavior with their children during several parent-child tasks, including a teaching task and a joint picture-making task. The authors showed that parental beliefs direct parents toward providing and promoting certain kinds of educational experiences for their children and that parents' educational attitude and related affective characteristics serve to structure the parents' interactions with the child.

Laosa, L. (1982). School, occupation, culture and family: The impact of parental schooling on the parent-child relationship. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *74*, 791-827.

The primary focus of this study was a conceptual and empirical examination of the impact of schooling on the parent-child relationship. During the course of a series of studies, the author attempted to determine whether parents' schooling, parents' occupational status, and maternal employment each have a distinct pattern of influences on educationally related aspects of the parent-child relationship. Data suggest that there is a strong connection between the amount of schooling received and how parents interact with their children. Explanations for the frequent failure observed among members of certain minority groups are suggested, and a broad theoretical model causally linking parents' schooling, family interaction processes, and children's scholastic performance is presented. Better home-school continuity, in which both parents and schools build on and use each other's strengths, is advocated.

Lindsay, G., Evans, A., & Jones, B. (1985). Paired reading versus relaxed reading: A comparison. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *55*, 304-309.

This study compared the effectiveness of two methods of parents' involvement in the development of their children's reading: paired reading and relaxed reading. Each method was adopted with a group of 10 children, who were subdivided based on their progress during the 6-week project. The project was monitored by home visit or telephone. The results suggest that both methods can lead to substantial improvement in reading ability. The authors stated that all groups achieved at least four times the expected reading age gain and that gains for paired reading subjects were not significantly higher than those for relaxed reading subjects.

McCormick, C. E., & Mason, J. M. (1986). Intervention procedures for increasing preschool children's interest in and knowledge about reading. In W. Teale & E. Sulzby (Eds.), *Emergent literacy: Reading and writing* (pp. 90-115). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

The first part of this chapter focuses on the developmental stages of reading for preschool children. The authors contend that reading readiness does not necessarily accompany age maturity. Rather, students must be *conceptually ready* for reading, which involves going through what the authors refer to as a three-part hierarchy of reading concepts. In the first stage, the child gains a functional knowledge of reading (e.g., reading street signs and labels). The second stage involves the forms of print and requires children to pay attention to the structural characteristics of print and to use letter-sound relationships. In the third stage, children move through actual reading experiences, begin to notice patterns and repetitions, and focus back on the meaning of the text. The second part of the chapter presents findings from the authors' study of preschool children's reading and parental support. The study used two groups of kindergarten children: one with 23 children and one with 27 children. An intervention method was used that focused on the use of easy-to-read books and emphasized the meaning of print over letter names, sounds, word reading, spelling, and printing. The authors conclude that (a) children of lower SES enter school with less knowledge of letters and letter sounds than children of higher SES, and they have less parental support for prereading skills; (b) easy-to-read books substantially increase children's interest in prereading and knowledge of words and letters; and (c) parents respond positively and actively when easy-to-read books are available.

McLane, J., & McNamee, G. (1990). *Early literacy.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

This book investigates themes around early literacy by first defining literacy as a cultural, social, and cognitive achievement. It then discusses the various bridges to literacy and the processes by which children develop their ability to write and read. A chapter is also dedicated to how literacy is developed at home and in the neighborhood, and the final chapter describes the development of literacy in preschool and kindergarten. The author argued that through play, children can acquire a range of information and skills related to writing and reading, as well as feelings and expectations about themselves as potential writers and readers. This multifaceted body of knowledge and attitudes constitutes *early* or *emergent* literacy. Early literacy development does not simply happen. Rather, it is a social process, embedded in children's relationships with parents, siblings, grandparents, friends, caretakers, and teachers. These people play critical roles in early literacy development by serving as models; providing materials and demonstrating their use; reading to children; offering help, instruction, and encouragement; and communicating hopes and expectations. It is what children and other people bring to experiences with reading and writing that shapes what children learn and how they come to see the eventual place of literacy in their own lives. Literacy learning is also affected by the continuity between the children's experiences with literacy at home and those encountered at school.

Moore, S., & Moore, D. (1990). Emergent literacy: Children, parents, and teachers together. *The Reading Teacher, 43*, 330-331.

In this article, Moore and Moore review six professional books that provide theoretical principles on emergent literacy behaviors, and relationships between children and their parents and teachers are compared. The article provides practical suggestions for promoting young children's literacy, including strategies to engage children in reading, approaches to parent-child reading, and ways to identify children's needs and progress.

Morrow, L. (1985). Reading and retelling stories: Strategies for emergent readers. *The Reading Teacher, 38*, 870-875.

This article summarizes the findings of three related research studies that investigated the benefits of involving children in story retelling and of particular strategies for reading stories to children. The results of the studies indicate that if kindergartners are asked to retell a story that has been read to them, their comprehension will improve. The results also indicate that guided practice in retelling stories over a period of time improves a child's ability to answer both traditional comprehension questions about the story and questions about the structure of the story. The author discusses classroom application and valuable techniques that can be used in light of these results.

Ninio, A. (1980). Picture-book reading in mother-infant dyads belonging to two subgroups in Israel. *Child Development, 51*, 587-590.

This study investigated how mother-infant verbal interaction affects the child's language acquisition. Two groups of 20 mother-infant dyads were observed while reading a picture book together. One group consisted of lower class mothers and the other of middle-class mothers. The most common formats of communication were "What is that?" questions, "Where is X?" questions, and labeling statements made by the mother. Middle-class mothers asked more "What is that?" questions, which elicited more responses from the children than the other formats. Middle-class mothers also varied the format of the communication as needed by the child. Low-class mothers initiated few "What is that?" questions and did not vary the formats according to the child's needs. The low SES children demonstrated a smaller vocabulary than the high SES children, which is probably a result of these differences in the mothers' teaching style.

Pellegrini, A. (1991). A critique of the concept of at risk as applied to emergent literacy. *Language Arts, 68*, 380-385.

Two models of the concept *at risk* are discussed: one that places the blame on the parents and/or children and one that places the blame on the school. Pellegrini concluded that neither concept is valid, based on his reviews of research investigating the effects of text genre and format on reading style. That body of research demonstrates that nonmainstreamed mothers use competent teaching techniques with their children when they are reading familiar expository texts, such as toy advertisements and newspapers, just as mainstream mothers would when they are reading familiar trade books. Teachers should be sensitive to format and text differences that affect students' abilities to read and interact with text and should assist in approaching the different genres without assuming incompetence.

Pellegrini, A., Perlmutter, J. C., Galda, L., & Brody, G. H. (1989). *Joint book reading between black Head Start children and mothers*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Georgia, Institute for Behavioral Research, Athens, GA.

This study examined the behaviors of black Head Start children and their mothers during a series of experimental joint book readings in their homes. The research focused on two issues: (a) examining the effect of text genre (narrative and expository) and book reading format (familiar and traditional) on mothers' teaching strategies and (b) examining the effectiveness of mothers' teaching strategies in eliciting children's participation in the joint reading task. Thirteen mother-child dyads were videotaped in their homes while reading and discussing a series of books in each genre and format. Results indicate that genre, not format, affected mothers' teaching strategies. Furthermore, the mothers adjusted their level of teaching to the children's level of task competence.

Smith, C. (1991). Emergent literacy: An early reading and writing concept. *ERIC Review*, *1*(2), 14-15.

This article describes *emergent literacy* as a process through which children gain knowledge about the world of print by interacting with print. The author cites the abundance of research that suggests that the children who are the most successful early readers have access to writing materials at home. When children have limited access to writing materials at home, teachers are encouraged to create opportunities for children to interact with print at school.

Strickland, D., & Morrow, L. (1989). Creating curriculum: An emergent literacy perspective (Emerging readers and writers). *The Reading Teacher*, *42*, 722-723.

This article focuses on curricular development in constructing a view of emergent literacy. The authors describe an approach for assisting staff, parents, and children that focuses on five objectives: (a) laying the foundation for new policy directions, (b) assessing the literacy environment, (c) planning for essential experiences, (d) attending to skill development and program objectives, and (e) reassessing emergent literacy programs.

Sulzby, E. (1985). Children's emergent reading of favorite story books: A developmental study. *Reading Research Quarterly, 20,* 458-481.

In this article, the author reviews literature that addresses the question of how a child gradually develops the ability to read storybooks before receiving traditional instruction. The literature is reviewed in terms of both parent-child interactions and teacher-child interactions. The author then presents two studies that investigate the patterns of young children's storybook reading behaviors when reading to an adult. The literature discussed in this article suggested a developmental classification scheme for emergent literacy. The first study of 24 kindergartners investigated the validity of the classification scheme. The author suggests that the major categories and subcategories of the classification scheme appear in an ordered developmental sequence. The results of the second study, which included 32 2- to 4-year-old children, suggest that children's reading behaviors are stable across storybooks.

Teale, W. (1981). Parents reading to their children: What we know and need to know. *Language Arts, 58,* 902-912.

Research has shown that a positive relationship exists between being read to at home and various aspects of oral and written language development in children. This article details what is known about the nature and consequences of parents reading to their children. The author discusses the strong correlation between reading at home and language development in prereaders, vocabulary development, children's eagerness to read, and success in beginning reading. However, the author states that these correlational events do not answer how and why they work for children. The balance of this article poses questions for future research in this area (e.g., how does home practice affect curriculum building in school?).

Teale, W., & Sulzby, E. (Eds.). (1986). *Emergent literacy: Writing and reading.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

This book is a collection of writings by many of the leading researchers in the area of *emergent literacy*, defined as the period of literacy acquisition from birth to age six. The theory of emergent literacy is based on the following assumptions: (a) literacy development begins long before formal instruction; (b) children use reading and writing in informal settings; (c) children develop as readers and writers at the same time, one ability does not precede the other; and (d) literacy develops in real life settings as children learn through active engagement in their environment. The individual authors address the issues of early literacy development from a variety of perspectives and disciplines. The introduction reviews the history of literacy development as it relates to young children. Chapter titles are as follows: "Children Coming to Know Literacy," "The Interplay Between Information and Assimilation in Beginning Literacy," "Writing and Reading: Signs of Oral and Written Language Organization in the Young Child," "Intervention Procedures for Increasing Preschool Children's Interest in and Knowledge About Reading," "The Contracts of Literacy: What Children Learn From Learning to Read Books," "Creating Family Story: 'Matthew! We're Going to Have a Ride!'," "Separating 'Things of Imagination' From Life: Learning to Read and Write," and "Home Background and Young Children's Literacy Development."

Topping, K. (1987). Paired reading: A powerful technique for parent use. *The Reading Teacher, 40*, 608-614.

This article describes how to practice the paired reading technique and how this technique was developed. It outlines the relationship of paired reading to other reading techniques and theories (i.e., how paired reading applies to various communities and how it has been evaluated and researched). One of the strengths of the model is its flexibility. It was designed for use with children of any reading level by family members with potentially low literacy skills. A core feature of the method, positive feedback, is as important as either participant's literacy level, and therefore gives every parent an important role. Random samples of parents and children were given feedback questionnaires about the technique. A majority of them reported positive gains as a result of using the technique.

Tovey, D., Johnson, L., & Szporer, M. (1988). Beginning reading: A natural language learning process. *Childhood Education, 64*, 288-292.

In this article, the authors discuss the importance of children learning to read naturally, using syntactic and semantic as well as graphophonic cues. The authors outline an instructional procedure developed over a 16-year period that, they claim, cannot fail. The procedure emphasizes the nonvisual aspects of reading and the use of silent reading, so that children focus on the meaning of the text. The procedure has three phases: dictating stories, identifying phrases and sentences from stories, and making the transition from reading one's own stories to books authored by others.

Treat, E. (1990). *Home school literacy: An ethnographic study of parents teaching reading and writing*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA.

This dissertation is a case study of one family that home schools their child. From this study, the author seeks to answer two questions: (a)

What is the quality of learning that takes place at home? (b) How can the educational experience of one home school family inform the research community about teaching and learning? The oral and written language of the family members provided the primary data for the study. The data were collected through interviews, audio and video recording, documents, writing samples, protocol analysis, questionnaires, home visits, and field notes. Results suggest that collaborative learning can happen in a home school setting as parents become actively engaged in designing their own literacy development program and become acquainted with their children's learning styles. Holistic, natural learning was possible in this context, since the child was the center of teaching interactions. The parents could also teach in both formal and informal manners without time constraints and act as models of readers, writers, and learners. Evaluation was ongoing and negotiable. The learning environment nurtured self-inspired knowledge seeking in all family members.

Van Fossen, S., & Sticht, T. G. (1991). *Teach the mother and reach the child: Results of the Intergenerational Literacy Action Research Project.* Washington, DC: Wider Opportunities for Women.

The authors describe a 6-year project that documents the intergenerational transfer of literacy skills from mother to child of 463 women enrolled in adult education and employment programs. Sixty-five percent of the children of mothers participating in the program demonstrated educational improvements as a result of their mothers' participation in the program. This project hypothesized that greater success can be reached in significantly reducing adult illiteracy by focusing resources on adolescent girls and women. Results from research questionnaires showed that more than 450 of the 463 mothers reported doing one or more of the following: (a) reading aloud to their children, (b) helping their children with homework, (c) taking their children to the library more often, (d) talking more often with their children about school, (e) talking more often with their children's teachers, (f) helping with school activities more often, and (g) attending school activities more often. Forty-eight case studies confirmed and corroborated the questionnaires. The study suggests that policies aimed at increasing resources for the education of mothers may provide a significant return on investment.

Wahl, A. (1988). Ready...Set...Role: Parents' role in early reading. *The Reading Teacher*, *42*, 228-231.

The author of this article stresses the importance of the parents' role in developing their children's interest in and love for reading. She gives a list of practical ideas to help parents implement informal learning activities at home. Suggestions include having an assortment of books, reading with children, using daily activities such as cooking and running errands as a way to develop literacy, and encouraging verbal and written abilities.

Walton, S. (1989). Katy learns to read and write. *Young Children, 44*, 52-57.

The reading and writing development of the author's child is described in the context of the increasing concerns of parents that their children be able to read and write at an early age. The development of the child's reading and writing is followed from the age of 2 until the age of 5 1/2. Guidelines for helping children learn to read and write, based on the author's personal experiences and research in emergent literacy, are provided.

Wells, G. (1985). Preschool literacy-related activities and success in school. In D. R. Olson, N. Torrance, & A. Hildyard (Eds.), *Literacy, language, and learning: The nature and consequences of reading and writing* (pp. 229-255). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The purpose of this study was to look at the types and frequency of activity in which children between 1 1/2 and 3 1/2 years old actually engaged that related to reading and writing. Thirty-two children were observed in the study, and data were derived from transcripts of recordings made at regular intervals in the homes of the families. Results indicate that listening to a story told from a book was significantly associated with both the knowledge of literacy and reading comprehension at age seven. The author argues that giving children opportunities to become aware of language through stories—which are self-contextualized, sustained, symbolic representations of possible worlds—facilitates early reading much more than worksheets and other decontextualized forms of written language that most school curricula demand.

Yaden, D. B., Jr., Smolkin, L. B., & Conlon, A. (1989). Preschoolers' questions about pictures, print convention, and story text during reading aloud at home. *Reading Research Quarterly, 24*, 188-214.

This article reports the results of two longitudinal studies of nine 3- to 5-year-old preschoolers. The preschoolers' unprompted questions during story reading with their parents were classified into a preliminary taxonomy and analyzed. Results indicate that a general pattern emerged for five of the nine children. These children asked the most questions about pictures, then, in decreasing frequency, they asked questions about story meaning, word meaning, and graphic forms. The author hypothesized that home story reading may have more effect on children's development of comprehension than on their print awareness.

C. PARENT AND FAMILY BELIEFS AND SOCIALIZATION

1. PARENT AND FAMILY BELIEF SYSTEMS

Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, Ph. L., Leiderman, P. H., Roberts, D. F., & Fraleigh, M. J. (1987). The relation of parenting style to adolescents' school performance. *Child Development*, *58*, 1244-1257.

The authors developed and tested a reformulation of Baumrind's typology of authoritarian, permissive, and authoritative parenting styles in the context of adolescent school performance. Using a sample of 7,836 high school students, the authors found that both authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were negatively correlated with grades. Parenting styles generally showed the expected relation to grades across gender, age, parental education, ethnicity, and family structure. Children from families that scored high on the authoritative index had the highest mean grades, while inconsistent families, who combined authoritative parenting with other styles, had the lowest grades. The authors also found that the authoritarian parenting style tended to have a stronger negative association with grades than did the other two styles, except among Hispanic males, for whom authoritarian parenting showed almost no relation to grades. For Asians, the correlation of grades with either authoritative or permissive styles was nearly zero.

Johnson, J. E., & Martin, C. (1985). Parents' beliefs and home learning environments: Effects on cognitive development. In I. Sigel (Ed.), *Parental belief systems: The psychological consequences for children* (pp. 25-50). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

In this chapter, the authors focused on how parental beliefs may relate to indices of the home as a learning environment and to estimates of the child's level of cognitive abilities. This study is part of a project that focused on family setting, structure, and environment as factors affecting cognitive development in rural kindergarten children. One hundred eighty families from 12 school districts in towns or villages in rural Wisconsin were studied using child assessments and maternal questionnaires. The findings suggest that parents appear to distinguish teaching and child management as two separate categories, while they combine learning and development, at least in teaching situations, into one category. While parents appear to see their children as passive learners in teaching situations, they encourage the child's initiative and self-direction in social situations. The authors argue that content, consequences, and correlates of parental beliefs may vary with change in situational context for the parent and child.

Portes, P., Dunham, R., & Williams, S. (1986). Assessing child-rearing style in ecological settings: Its relation to culture, social class, early age intervention, and scholastic achievement. *Adolescence, 21*, 723-735.

The authors of this article consider the impact that early intervention has on disciplinary style and how disciplinary style affects school performance. Three groups were investigated: (a) 19 low SES families who participated in an early intervention program, (b) 18 low SES families who did not participate in a program, and (c) 17 middle SES families who did not participate. All three groups had equal numbers of black and white families. Dyads of mothers and children from each group were observed discussing seven child-rearing problems. Results showed that white mothers were more permissive than black mothers across socioeconomic boundaries. Low-income mothers who participated in the early intervention program were more permissive than low-income mothers who did not, and middle-class mothers were the most permissive. Higher academic achievement on the California Tests of Basic Skills (CTBS) was correlated with the permissive disciplinary style, especially in terms of language development.

Scanzoni, J. (1985). Black parental values and expectations of children's occupational and educational success: Theoretical implications. In H. P. McAdoo & J. L. McAdoo (Eds.), *Black children: Social, educational, and parental environments* (pp. 113-122). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

In this paper, the author argues that black families do not have distinctly different educational and career values than white families and that racial differences in achievement are due to blocked economic opportunities. The author identifies three elements that affect academic and occupational achievement: (a) the socioeconomic position of the parents, (b) the degree to which the family has a strong rural southern heritage, and (c) the household composition (i.e., single-parent families). In describing background factors that affect economic opportunities, the author contends that the eventual social position of the children is, in part, determined by the parents' functionality and the children's identification with the parents. For African-American families who are not low income, the parents' functionality and subjective orientations towards education and work are similar to those of white families.

Segal, M. (1985). A study of maternal beliefs and values within the context of an intervention program. In I. Sigel (Ed.), *Parental belief systems: The psychological consequences for children* (pp. 271-286). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

The author describes two successive studies in which the primary goal was to identify parental beliefs, values, and/or role definitions that can account for differences in parent and/or child behavior. These studies were conducted in conjunction with the Ready for School Project, which served 200-300 families annually. In the first study, a Q-sort was performed on the values as the scores relate to family demographics. In the second study, the relationship between parental role disposition and time spent by the parent in parent-child learning activities was examined. Results showed a negative correlation between parent-as-teachers and parent-as-disciplinarian role interpretations. Mothers in single-parent families stressed obedience and competition more than mothers in two-parent families. It was also found that income and educational level were associated with child-rearing values. Implications for practitioners/interventionists and programs are discussed.

Sigel, I. (1982). The relationship between parental distancing strategies and the child's cognitive behavior. In L. Laosa & I. Sigel (Eds.), *Families as learning environments for children* (pp. 47-86). New York: Plenum Press.

This study investigated the relationship between family variables and a child's cognitive development. Specifically, it investigated the family's social class, birth order of child, parent's sex, child's sex, and parent's teaching behaviors related to a certain task in relationship to the child's cognitive development. Parents were observed teaching two different tasks, paper folding and story telling, to their 4-year-old children. The number and type of communications that involved *distancing*, the cognitive ability of separating oneself from the immediate present, were counted and analyzed according to the parent's sex and type of task. Results showed that distancing strategies improved the child's ability to solve problems. The type of strategies used by the parents varied according to the parent's sex and the type of task. Included in the article is an appendix describing the data-gathering procedures and child assessments.

Sigel, I. (1985). A conceptual analysis of beliefs. In I. Sigel (Ed.), *Parental belief systems: The psychological consequences for children* (pp. 345-371). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

In this chapter, Sigel seeks to define the concept of belief, to distinguish belief from knowledge, and to form a structural theory of belief. He states that beliefs can be based on faith or on evidence, and their validity is determined by their *truth value*, or how much the individual believes in them. Reviewed are studies conducted by Sigel and McGillicuddy-DeLisi that investigated how parental beliefs affected parental teaching strategies. The author suggests that beliefs are influenced by parents' intentions, attitudes, and values, and by the sociopolitical context. Research on parental beliefs has shown that beliefs can form a system or a cluster of mutually acceptable beliefs. The cognitive processes that mediate between parents' beliefs and their behaviors are discussed. The author proposes a research strategy with which to investigate the relationships between parents' beliefs and their behavior.

Sigel, I. (1986). Reflections in the belief-behavior connection: Lessons learned from a research program on parental belief systems and teaching strategies. In R. D. Ashmore & D. M. Brodzinsky (Eds.), *Thinking about the family: Views of parents and children* (pp. 35-65). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

This chapter documents the process that Sigel used to develop his research concerning the interaction between parents' beliefs and their teaching strategies. The author starts out by establishing an interactive model describing the interaction between parents, their beliefs and actions, and the children and their cognition. Subsequently, the area of cognition under investigation is defined (i.e., distancing techniques that people can use to separate themselves from the ongoing present). Sigel gathered data from parent interviews and observations of parent-child interactions. The author discovered that patterns of parents' beliefs affect teaching strategies and that fathers' and mothers' beliefs affect their behaviors in different ways. Changes made in his definition of beliefs and ideas for future research are discussed, and ideas of how current results can be used in early intervention programs are explored.

Wyngaarden-Krauss, M. (1988). Measures of stress and coping in families. In H. Weiss & F. Jacobs (Eds.), *Evaluating family programs*. New York: A. De Gruyter.

In this chapter, the author describes the potential contribution that measures of stress and coping can make to family programs. A review of conceptual bases on which instruments measuring stress and coping are grounded is presented. The impact of these concepts on program development is discussed. Several measures are discussed, and issues of administering these instruments are explored.

2. SOCIALIZATION ISSUES

Alwin, D. F. (1984). Trends in parental socialization values: Detroit 1958-1983. *American Journal of Sociology*, *90*, 359-379.

This study looked at the relationship between societal changes and parental values relative to child rearing. Data were merged from three surveys conducted with parents from the Detroit metropolitan area in 1958, 1971, and 1983, whose children ranged in age from 2 to 18. The results of the survey showed that parental preferences for autonomy over obedience have changed consistently over two decades. Surveys identified the increasing education of women, more egalitarian gender role attitudes, smaller families, older parents, and well educated mothers who spend more time with their children as shifts that have changed the emphasis from obedience to autonomy. Protestants who were surveyed in 1983 have a preference for obedience over autonomy, which is a reverse from 1959. Socioeconomic factors in parental values have changed, but the gross distinction between white-collar and blue-collar workers seems to be diminishing.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1986). Ecology of the family as a context for human development: Research perspectives. *Developmental Psychology, 22*, 723-742.

This review examines research relating to how external factors influence the ability of parents to encourage healthy development in their children. The research is organized around three major models of external systems affecting the family: (a) mesosystem, (b) exosystem, and (c) chronosystem. *Mesosystem* influences include the effects of genetics and environment and their interaction; they include the interaction of the family with hospitals, daycare, peer groups, and schools. The three *exosystems* affecting the family are the parents' workplace, the parents' social networks, and community influences. The *chronosystem* model examines the change and influence of the environment (transitions into day care, within peer groups, and at school and work) and the role of the family (social class, economic and community factors) over time. A strong emphasis is placed on suggestions for further research.

Halpern, R. (1990). Poverty and early childhood parenting: Toward a framework for intervention. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 60*, 6-18.

The author investigated the relationship between poverty and early childhood parenting and how different cultural and environmental patterns can help to determine the appropriate method of care and nurturance for children. Poverty's influence on child-rearing, as it affects several areas of parental functioning and the surrounding environment, is discussed. Having stated that current social trends make it difficult for families to get out of poverty, the author investigated how characteristics of parents can reflect either a realistic, purposeful approach to adversity or an approach defined by helplessness and emotional turmoil. Finally, the author reviewed how different cultures adapt to poverty and concluded with implications for social service intervention.

Heath, S. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

This book is an ethnography and social history of two communities, Roadville and Trackton, in the southeastern United States. The author investigated the ways that language learning and interaction at home and in the community affect children's schooling and work. He also looked at the methods teachers use to integrate the language used by children in various communities in order to empower the children to achieve in school. From the ethnographies of communication in Roadville and Trackton, which detail the ways each community uses words to socialize its children, three general points stand out. First, patterns of language use in any community are in accord with and mutually reinforce other cultural patterns, such as space and time orderings, problem-solving techniques, group loyalties, and preferred patterns of recreation. Second, factors involved in preparing children for school-oriented, mainstream success are deeper than differences in formal structures of language and the amount of parent-child interaction. Third, the patterns of interaction between oral and written uses of language are varied and complex, and the traditional oral-literate dichotomy does not capture the ways in which other cultural patterns in each community affect the uses of oral and written language. Chapter 1 provides a social and historical overview of the area. Chapter 2 describes the means of "gettin' on" [sic] in each community. Chapters 3 and 4 describe how preschoolers learn to talk in Trackton and Roadville. Chapters 5 and 6 describe the oral and literate traditions of the communities. The townspeople of the area are outlined in chapter 7. Chapters 8 and 9 explore the process of ethnography as it relates to and affects the teachers and students.

Hoffman, L. W. (1984). Work, family, and the socialization of the child. In R. Park, R. End, H. McAdoo, & E. Sackett (Eds.), *Review of child development research* (Vol. 7, pp. 223-282). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

This study concentrates on the effects of work on the family. Four independent variables were considered: (a) economic conditions, (b) social class, (c) father's job, and (d) mother's job. Economics was seen to have the most specific influence on family life, while social class affects the child's level of familiarity with school expectations. Both the fathers' and mothers' jobs were seen as influencing the values perpetuated in the family. Social change was viewed as particularly important in analyzing the effects of maternal employment on the family.

Rosow, L. (1991). How schools perpetuate illiteracy. *Educational Leadership*, *49*, 41-44.

The author of this study found that children who grow up in illiterate environments have difficulty at school because they lack experience with print in whole texts. Children from literate environments are familiar with words in context and, therefore, have little difficulty with the bottom-up skills exercises that most schools require. Children from illiterate environments have extreme difficulty with the same tasks and learn only that they cannot successfully complete school tasks. In this way, class distinctions and illiteracy are perpetuated across generations. Schools and teachers need to provide assistance to parents who have few literacy skills, since they are unable to provide the print-rich environment common in most wealthy homes. The authors suggest ways that teachers can foster family literacy.

Scott-Jones, D. (1984). Family influences on cognitive development and school achievement. *Review of Research in Education, 11*, 259-304.

This article reviews the various facets of research that relate to family influences on a child's development and school achievement. Theoretical perspectives, including the nature/nurture issue, parental beliefs and expectations, and bidirectional influences between parent and child are discussed. Biological factors are investigated in terms of both genetic factors and health and nutrition. In addition, environmental factors are reviewed including status variables (e.g., family configuration, single-parent families, maternal employment, socioeconomic status, and race) and family processes (e.g., maternal interactions and teaching strategies, paternal and sibling interactions, and parental beliefs and expectations). Suggestions for future research and implications for education are given.

Sigel, I., Dreyer, A. S., & McGillicuddy-DeLisi, A. V. (1981). Psychological perspectives of the family. In R. D. Parke (Ed.), *Review of child development research* (Vol. 7, pp. 42-70). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

In this review of child development, the authors first discuss the importance of psychoanalytic and behavioral theory in psychologists' perspectives on the family and the family's role in the socioemotional, cognitive, and language development of the child. The authors emphasize that researchers should focus on the whole system of family interaction rather than just on mother-child dyads and should review research on the child's socioemotional development (i.e., parent-child relationships, especially father-child relationships; the development of prosocial behavior; and the interactions between family members that affect the child's socioemotional development). The authors also review the effect of the family on cognitive development, looking at parental behavior, the organization of the home, the status or situational characteristics of the family, and the literature on family and language development.

Strodtbeck, F. (1958). Family interaction, values, and achievement. In D. McClelland, A. Baldwin, U. Bronfenbrenner, & F. Strodtbeck (Eds.), *Talent and society* (pp.135-195). Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.

This research investigated which values instilled in children by their families are conducive to academic and occupational achievement. The author defines five values of the Protestant work ethic that are necessary in order to achieve in American society. Jewish and southern Italian families are then compared in terms of their social status since immigration, and their agreement with American values. Jewish immigrants had higher social status than southern Italian immigrants, and Jewish culture was consistent with three of the five values. The author suggests that these three values (a person can master his own destiny, a willingness to leave home to make one's own way in life, and a preference for individual rather than collective credit for work done) are, therefore, related to achievement in American society. Jews also had higher expectations of their sons' ability to achieve. The balance of power in the family affects the son's ability to achieve.

Thompson, M. S., Alexander, K., & Entwisle, D. (1988). Household composition, parental expectations, and school achievement. *Social Forces*, *67*, 424-451.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the connection between a child's cognitive performance in first grade and household configuration. Using a population of 689 black and white first graders, the researchers interviewed and collected data from questionnaires given to parents, students, and teachers. Parents were questioned early in the fall about their estimates of their child's academic ability and their expectations for their child's academic achievement. Report card data and standardized test scores were collected at the end of the school year. Results suggest that the composition of the household is a significant factor in teachers' grading of the children and that this is more pronounced for blacks than for whites. The parents' expectations are influenced by household composition; the lack of social support in single-parent households is related to the child's academic achievement. Results also suggest that the effect of the household is more strongly related to the verbal domain than to the quantitative domain, so that children experience greater success in reading when their households have several language users.

D. FAMILY AND INTERGENERATIONAL LITERACY

1. GENERAL ISSUES

Auerbach, E. (1989). Towards a social-contextual approach of family literacy. *Harvard Educational Review*, *59*, 165-180.

In presenting a critical analysis of existing family literacy programs and research, the author argues that these endeavors reflect a modern version of the deficit-hypothesis. The author describes family literacy programs as being developed around a *deficit model*, which holds that there is something lacking in parents that prevents their children from achieving success in school. Rather than employing this definition of family literacy, the author proposes that the definition of family literacy be expanded to include a wide range of daily family activities. The assumptions evidenced by past studies of family literacy are examined, and the author supports the ideas that (a) language-minority students and their families do value literacy development, (b) literacy skills can be transferred from parent to child as well as from child to parent, (c) home literacy practices do not have to model school practices, (d) what happens in the home is not necessarily more important than what happens in school, and (e) parental problems with literacy should not be viewed as the cause for lack of family literacy contexts in the home. Auerbach suggests looking at ways to incorporate parents' knowledge and experiences into successful literacy learning instruction.

Handel, R. D., & Goldsmith, E. (1988). Intergenerational literacy: A community college program. *Journal of Reading*, *32*, 250-256.

The Parent Readers Program at N.Y.C. Technical College of the City University of New York (CUNY) is an intergenerational literacy project that seeks to improve the literacy status of community college students who are parents and their children. The program initially consisted of two workshops, which were later expanded. In the first workshop, parents explored a variety of books, were read to, and discussed reading to their children; in the second workshop, reading at home was discussed, and one of the authors talked with the parents. Thirty-three parents attended the first session and 22 the second. Through these sessions, an estimated 80 children were reached. The purpose of the project was to strengthen the academic reading proficiencies of the parents by making explicit the connection between their children's reading development and their own. Key findings were that (a) the availability of books stimulated parents to read to their children and (b) parents increasingly valued the importance of reading and discussing books with their children.

Handel, R. D., & Goldsmith, E. (1989). Children's literature and adult literacy: Empowerment through intergenerational learning. *Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research*, *12*, 24-27.

The authors argue that children's literature can contribute to adults' literacy development. In the program described here, adult learners were motivated to read so that they could read to their children. Different genres of children's literature were presented and discussed in workshops. The adults read one type of book, and the instructor modeled a reading strategy for learning from the book. Adults then took the book home to read to their children. Results showed that these students, who were initially passive learners, became active learners who read the books eagerly, discussed them, and raised questions. The authors report that parents became more observant of their children's reading behavior and shared this information in the workshops and that some started to take greater interest in their children's schooling. Reading scores were reportedly improving.

Heath, S. (1982). What no bedtime story means: Narrative skills at home and school. *Language in Society, 11*, 49-76.

In this article, Heath differentiates between the ways of taking meaning from printed materials that mainstream, school-oriented families teach their children and the ways that nonmainstream families teach their children. Based on ethnographic research in three communities (a mainstream, middle-class, school-oriented culture; a white, Appalachian, mill community; and a black, rural, mill community), the study discusses the striking differences in the residents' patterns of language use and in the paths of language socialization of their children. The author argues that the dichotomy between oral and literate traditions is a construct of researchers and not a realistic description of language use across cultures. The author also argues that the approaches that different cultures use to acquire literacy cannot be described by a unilinear model of development. Based on these two points, the author suggests that researchers use an ethnographic approach and interpret literacy events in terms of the larger sociocultural patterns which they reflect.

Nash, A. (1987). *English family literacy: An annotated bibliography*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Massachusetts, English Family Literacy Project, Boston.

This bibliography describes the increasing emphasis placed on the importance of family contributions to the development of literacy. First, it brings together research on family roles in literacy acquisition and studies of parental involvement programs. Second, it presents a range of models, approaches, and resources that English family literacy program designers, curriculum developers, and teachers can use in developing their own programs. The bibliography is divided into sections around five key questions: (a) What is literacy, and what are the different theoretical perspectives on literacy? (b) What is known about how families contribute to literacy development? (c) What is the current state of the art of parental involvement programs for native English-speaking families? (d) Which and how are particular issues addressed in programs for nonnative English speakers? (e) How can educators build on the strengths and needs of nonnative English-speaking families in designing parent involvement programs?

National Center for Family Literacy. (1993). ***The future of family literacy.*** **Louisville, KY: Author.**

This book traces the history of family literacy as a concept, as beginning programs, and as a public policy movement. In describing some of the definitional issues surrounding the seemingly simple and appealing idea of family literacy, the authors state that family literacy is part of a simple ideal, that parents and children can learn together, and that in learning together they can overcome the most difficult odds. The authors show state policymakers and program managers how to anticipate and grapple with issues surrounding family literacy. They suggest how individuals can begin new family literacy programs tailored to their communities. Finally, the authors address key issues about the future of the family literacy concept and the movement that has grown up around it.

Snow, C. (1991). ***Unfulfilled expectations: Home and school influences on literacy.*** **Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.**

In this book, Snow examines the sources of literacy in order to understand better why some children do not acquire literacy in school. A study was designed that emphasized the ways in which both home and school experiences affect the development of literacy in low-income children. The study was conducted in a small city in the northeastern United States. Thirty-two children in 30 families from low-income neighborhoods and five elementary schools were examined. The data for the study were gathered from interviews, individual test sessions, school records, class observations, and teacher questionnaires. The author suggests that "the family as educator" is an important predictor of word recognition and vocabulary and that a "resilient" family is an important predictor of writing skills. The author emphasizes that parents and schools should be partners in order to promote children's successful literacy development. She presents implications for policy and practice in the schools.

Taylor, D. (1983). ***Family literacy: Young children learning to read and write.*** **Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.**

Defined from an ethnographic perspective, Taylor's goal is to develop systematic ways of looking at reading and writing as activities that have consequences in and are affected by family life. She investigated six families over a period of five years. The families had various cultural, socioeconomic, and educational backgrounds, even though most of them now live in middle-income areas. The main research question was how the families' personal biographies and educative styles shape their literacy experiences.

Wagner, D., & Spratt, J. (1988). Intergenerational literacy: Effects of parental literacy and attitudes on children's reading achievement in Morocco. *Human Development, 31*, 359-369.

In this study, Wagner and Spratt tested 350 6- and 7-year-olds in urban and rural field sites in Morocco and administered sociodemographic and attitudinal surveys to parents as part of a 5-year longitudinal study of literacy acquisition and retention in Moroccan children. Parental literacy and clusters of parental attitudes were found to be related to reading achievement in children. Children's own beliefs about reading and learning were also significant predictors of their own reading performance. Results support the general importance of parental attitudes in influencing literacy achievement across generational boundaries. Findings also reinforce the proposition that children's beliefs, especially in the context of family literacy, can play an important role in reading achievement and school success.

Weinstein-Shr, G. (1991). *Literacy and second language learners: A family agenda.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Research has shown that parental involvement is crucial to the educational attainment of children. This paper discusses the difficulty that refugee families, or families in which the parents do not speak English, have in coping with the American school system and the language barrier. The social context of literacy is discussed as it affects these families, their ability to survive and communicate, and their internal power structure. The author suggests that educational practice should be more inclusive in order to encourage parental involvement and to show proper respect for parents' language and culture.

2. FAMILY LITERACY MODELS AND CURRICULA

Auerbach, E. (1990). *Making meaning, making change: A guide to participatory curriculum development for adult ESL and family literacy.* University of Massachusetts, Boston: Bilingual/ESL Graduate Studies. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 321 593)

This guide is a description of what teachers, students, and staff learned in the process of implementing a family literacy project, which was based at three different sites and served approximately 150 students (mostly adults) each year. In *Making Meaning, Making Change,* the author discusses and analyzes theoretical and methodological aspects of the components of curriculum development. Written from a social contextual perspective on family literacy, the guide provides a

40

documented critique of the current school-to-home transmission model, which underlies many current family literacy programs. This guide complements *Talking Shop: A Curriculum Source Book for Participatory Adult ESL*, which gives an account of practices from practitioners' points of view. It reflects on such issues as (a) what constitutes a participatory approach to curriculum development, (b) how to get started, (c) how to find student themes and develop curricula around them, (d) how to use literacy to make a change, and (e) what counts (and for whom) as progress.

Daisey, P. (1991). Intergenerational literacy programs: Rationale, description, and effectiveness. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 20*, 11-17.

In this article, the author defines *intergenerational literacy* as the tendency to pass on literacy abilities, or the lack of them, from parent to child. She states that the rationale for intergenerational literacy programs is that if adults become literate, then they become empowered to pass on literacy to their children. This conclusion is supported by research on the influence of the home environment, shared reading activities, and parents' attitude toward education. The author reviews three intergenerational programs: Collaborations for Literacy, Parents Readers Program, and the Kenan Trust Family Literacy Project. The author states that even though most of the research supporting intergenerational literacy programs is anecdotal, the results have been positive enough to continue to develop the field. She concludes by reviewing the new Even Start legislation.

Hayes, A. E. (1989, July). *William R. Kenan, Jr. Charitable Trust: Family Literacy Project*. Final project report to the National Center for Family Literacy. University of North Carolina, Wilmington.

This project, implemented at seven sites, intervened in at-risk families to combine efforts to provide quality early childhood education with efforts to improve the literacy and parenting skills of undereducated adults. The project was designed to improve parents' skills and attitudes toward education, children's learning skills, parents' child-care skills, and parent and children's educational experiences. The parents were brought together with their 3- or 4-year-old children for three days each week in a school where learning took place for both. The likelihood that parents would complete the project depended on what type of parents they were, as determined by such qualities as alienation from the norm and ability to change. The author states that most parents made gains in academic performance, self-concept, social skills, and control over life.

Hibpshman, T. L. (1989). ***An explanatory model for family literacy programs.*** **Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association, Little Rock, AR.**

The author of this paper investigates the assumptions and beliefs that drive most family literacy programs such as Parent and Child Education (PACE), a family literacy program in Kentucky. Hibpshman suggests that the theoretical basis for and the efficacy of the service model used by PACE and others has yet to be proven and that the causes of the outcomes are equally debatable. Consequently, since the causes are not yet identified, the services may not address the specific needs of participants. Hibpshman's three major research questions are: (a) Is there a causal relationship between family background and children's educational and social outcomes? (b) Will changes in family attitudes and behaviors be effective in changing children's outcomes? (c) Can replication of particular family literacy programs in different environments by different providers result in the same effects?

Nash, A., Cason, A., Rhum, M., McGrail, L., & Gomez-Sangord, R. (1989). ***Talking shop: A curriculum sourcebook for participatory adult ESL.*** **Boston: University of Massachusetts, English Family Literacy Project.**

This book is a collection of narratives by five teachers who work in community-based adult education programs in the Boston area. Entries were written by the individual teachers in order to communicate their personal experiences. The curriculum for the programs was based on a participatory approach that stressed the daily concerns and learning needs of the students. Subject headings for the book include "Getting Things Started," "Immigrant Experiences," "Mothers and Their Children," and "Redefining Learning and Teaching." A bibliography of reference materials for participatory curriculum development is included.

Nickse, R. (1989). ***The noises of literacy: An overview of intergenerational and family literacy programs*** **(Report No. CE 053 282). Boston, MA: Boston University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 308 415)**

This overview of intergenerational and family literacy programs consists of five parts, including a bibliography and four appendices. Part 1 presents general background information, discusses expectations for programs, and describes target populations, program designs, and administration. Part 2 describes the basis and motivation for program justification, including pressures from contemporary society and research from the fields of adult and emergent literacy, cognitive science, early childhood education, and family systems theory. Attention is paid specifically to cultural differences and the political appeal of programs. In part 3, programs in adult basic education, libraries, family English literacy, and preschool and elementary programs are described. Part 4 presents a classification and typology of programs by the authors based on mode of intervention (direct versus indirect) and target population (adult versus child). Part 5 includes recommendations to support intergenerational and family literacy programs.

Nickse, R. (1990). Family literacy programs: Ideas for action. *Adult Learning. 1*(5), 9-13, 28-29.

In this article, the author provides an action-oriented framework for integrated literacy programs in communities, based on her own work and on studies revealing the positive correlation between mothers' educational level and their children's educational achievement. Four basic models for service delivery are discussed based on the author's earlier work (see *The Noises of Literacy*, cited above): direct adult-direct child, indirect adult-indirect child, direct adult-indirect child, and indirect adult-direct child. Examples of programs in each category are listed, including contacts. The author stresses that programs should be designed to meet local needs.

Nickse, R. (1991a, March). Some issues in the practice of family and intergenerational literacy. Paper presented at the Conference on Intergenerational Literacy, *Developing Literacy Skills of Children and Adults*, The Center for Literacy, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

This paper focuses on issues in the practice of family literacy and intergenerational literacy. It is based on the personal and professional experience of the author, as well as on research and analysis of existing programs. The paper addresses concerns in program design and implementation (e.g., goals, target populations, recruitment and retention, sites and facilities, curriculum, and other details important to proposal writers, program coordinators, staff, funders, and program participants). The author suggests several strategies and solutions of problems for programs. Of special concern to the author are issues that underlie program implementation. The author argues that if these problems are not addressed properly, they can cause individual programs and the concept of family literacy to falter.

Nickse, R. (1991b, March). A typology of family and intergenerational literacy programs. Paper presented at the Conference on Intergenerational Literacy, *Developing Literacy Skills of Children and Adults*, The Center for Literacy, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Based on her earlier work (see *The Noises of Literacy*, cited above), Nickse presents a typology of four categories of family and intergenerational literacy programs. In this paper, Nickse relates this typology specifically to program goals and different criteria that could be appropriate for evaluation of the different programs. Additionally, strategies and instruments for use as evaluation measures are provided.

Smith, S. (1991). Two-generation program models: A new intervention strategy. ***Social Policy Report: Society for Research in Child Development*, *5*, 1-15.**

This article describes program models that target welfare-dependent women with young children. The programs described in this report help families attain economic self-sufficiency through education and job training, while also providing other services such as parenting education and high-quality child care that support children's healthy development. This report provides a general introduction to five new models that employ a two-generation strategy and related research efforts to study program effects on parent employment and child development outcomes. Two of the models are linked with the JOBS program; the other three are linked with the Comprehensive Child Development Program, New Chance, and Even Start. The study makes recommendations for how to evaluate two-generation interventions based on systematic variation of family types, interdisciplinary collaboration, assessment of component services, and federal provision of policy guidance, standards, and resources.

Webster, L., Wood, R. W., Eicher, C., & Hoag, C. L. (1989). A preschool language tutoring project: Family support—the essential factor. ***Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *4*, 217-224.**

The purpose of this study was to determine whether intensive tutoring of 22 language-deficient preschool children, ages 3 1/2 to 5, could improve their language skills. Children were tested using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and then randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Six undergraduate university students were trained as tutors and met with the experimental group three times per week. The results did not show the anticipated gains in test scores for the children in the experimental group. The authors conclude that the poor familial conditions of the children in the experimental group and the lack of family support were the main causes of the failure of this project. They suggest that educators find more and better ways to help children who live in adverse family situations.

3. FAMILY LITERACY PROGRAMS: PRACTICES, APPROACHES, AND STRATEGIES

Altoona Area Public Library. (1987, June). *Family literacy* (Report No. CE 049 291). Harrisburg, PA: Pennsylvania State Department of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 289 062)

The aim of this library project was to break the cycle of illiteracy that passes from nonliterate parents to children. Parents were recruited through Head Start, which provided home aides. The literacy levels of parents were assessed with help from the Literacy Volunteers Program. Parents were provided with materials to read to their children, given help with their own reading needs, and assisted in using reading as a family activity. Although the 257 children in Head Start received Reading Is FUNdamental (RIF) books, the number of parents involved in the project was not stated. The reading levels of adult participants increased by anywhere from 6 months to 2 years. Children's attention spans increased, and their verbal capabilities increased as well. However, 50% of the targeted population chose not to participate in the project at all, and up to 30% did not complete the program. The authors attribute the nonparticipation and dropout rates to parents' overestimated abilities and pride.

Bryant, B. (1989). Writing across the generations. *The Reading Teacher*, *42*, 445-446.

This article describes a collaborative project between a third- and a fourth-grade class and a senior citizens' center. In the project, the children wrote letters to pen pals at the center. The author suggests that this writing activity gave a meaning and purpose to literary activities and caused improvement in the children's ability to write clearly and with correct grammar. The project also enabled the children and senior citizens to develop positive relationships.

Clymer, C. (1989). *Literacy education action* (Report No. FL 800 035). El Paso, TX: El Paso Community College. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 316 058)

This report describes the establishment and development of the Literacy Education Action (LEA) program by El Paso Community College. Starting as a literacy tutoring program using a language-experience approach for people with reading levels below sixth grade, the program provided tutoring for native English speakers, native Spanish speakers, and bilingual individuals. After two years, LEA began developing into a network of community literacy groups. The LEA model is considered a model for other programs and has been widely recognized at conferences and in national publications. This report is an organizational history of LEA and provides a description of how programs become community based.

Dean, M. (1989). *Adult Spanish literacy: Home English Literacy for Parents Project* (Report No. FL 800 152). Des Plaines, IL: Northwest Educational Cooperative. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 321 602)

This report describes the organization and content of a home-based Spanish literacy program in which participants learned to read and write from the most basic level (e.g., names) in their native language before moving on to English. The program, based on Freirean methodology, encompassed both literacy and numeracy concepts and included a combination of ABE and ESL classes. The report provides an extensive list of competencies in reading, writing, mathematics, and ESL. The curriculum, as it is described, is based on the identified needs of the population of Project H.E.L.P. (Home English Literacy for Parents) under the Northwest Educational Cooperative and a bilingual special project of the local school district. Assessment of participant progress was mostly anecdotal, using some portfolio assessment approaches. The report is useful in that it is another success story of a program in which participants felt that their needs were being met (i.e., to read and write Spanish) before moving on to an ESL class. While it provides a description of the approach used (e.g., starting in some cases with participants' writing their own names and expanding on that activity), the report does not provide information regarding the impact that the program could have on the family as a whole, on parent-child interactions, or on children's performance in school.

Friedberg, J. (1989). Food for thought; Helping today's toddlers become tomorrow's readers: A pilot parent participation project offered through a Pittsburgh health agency. *Young Children*, *44*, 13-16.

In this article, the author stresses the importance of a print-rich environment in which parents read to their children for the development of early literacy. The author describes a pilot program, called Beginning with Books, that is based in well-baby clinics in Allegheny County, Pennsylvania. In this program, parents with preschool children receive four high-quality paperback books, a pamphlet with tips for reading to children, and a flyer with information on local library programs. The author also describes the Gift Book program and the Read Together program, which are offshoots of the Beginning with Books program.

Garza, E. (1987, March). The Family English Literacy Project: Promoting adult literacy in San Antonio. *IDRA Newsletter*. San Antonio, TX: Intercultural Development Research Association.

The Family English Literacy Project (FELP) is targeted at a limited English proficient population in San Antonio and is administered by the Intercultural Developmental Research Association (IDRA). Traditional literacy classes are complemented by once-a-week televised literacy lessons, which were later expanded to include helping-your-children sessions, reinforcement material, and a student hotline. Potential participants were recruited through their children. Issues central to the program were key communication skills, the use of Spanish to facilitate comprehension, information on how schools operate, and ideas for helping children with their school work. The hotline, which was intended for problems related to class work, turned out to be much more of a lifeline between teacher and student, informing teachers when parents could not attend for a variety of reasons. Teaching practices seem to be centered around a *Madeline Hunter approach*, and the programs seem to center around what Auerbach (1989) would call a *transmission approach*.

MacCarry, B. (1989). More thoughts...; Helping preschool child care staff and parents do more with stories and related activities: A pilot joint venture between a Florida public library and local child care centers. *Young Children, 44*, 17-21.

In this article, the author describes a project involving the Lee County Library System and seven child care centers operating under the aegis of Lee County Child Care, Inc. in Fort Myers, Florida. In this project, a library consultant created 100 book activity kits for the teachers to use at the child care centers, and he chose 1,000 books to serve as a circulating library, which child care staff and children could use regularly. The project also included a workshop at which the library consultant provided information about how to make stories enjoyable, meaningful, and exciting to children. The article includes parts of sample activity kits, a suggested reading list for early childhood teachers, and a suggested reading list of folktales for children.

Nickse, R., & Paratore, J. P. (1988). *An exploratory study into the effects of an intergenerational approach to literacy: Final report* (Contract No. G008610963). Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

In this report, the authors discuss an exploratory study of a program that is an outgrowth of the Collaborations for Literacy Project in Boston by the same authors. The purpose of the study was to determine if an intergenerational approach has a positive impact on adult beginning readers' progress and retention and if the children of parents enrolled in an intergenerational program show gains in reading and language achievement. The project developed a new format for adult literacy services, action research, and materials development (Nickse, 1985;

Nickse & Englander, 1985). The project's aim was to improve parents' skills and their ability to assist their children in achieving success in school. All participating parents had children in federally funded Chapter 1 reading programs in Boston Public Schools. Instruction, taking place in community locations, included both explicit instruction in literacy skills and modeling of shared literacy activities for use in the home environment. The overall conclusion of the authors was that an intergenerational approach is meaningful and realistic for parents to practice their own skills as well as to engage in shared literacy activities with their children. However, it is worth noting that "early emphasis on shared book reading was determined to be premature and relatively ineffective for use in home settings where prior to participation home story book reading never really occurred."

Nuckolls, M. (1991). Expanding students' potential through family literacy. *Educational Leadership*, *49*, 45-46.

In this study, Nuckolls suggests a rationale for family literacy programs that uses children's literature and is associated with the schools. Problem areas for family literacy programs are identified, including ownership, involvement, understanding on the part of staff in the facility or school, recruitment and retention of clients, and program evaluation.

Quintero, E., & Cristina-Velarde, M. (1990). Intergenerational literacy: A developmental, bilingual approach. *Young Children*, *45*, 10-15.

The study describes the development and implementation of El Paso Community College's Intergenerational Literacy Project. The project brings Spanish-speaking parents and their children together in the classroom in an effort to improve the two groups' literacy skills in both English and Spanish. The curriculum of the project is described, and the response of the teachers and parents to the project is provided. Results suggest that the parents' English reading level increases and that their attitudes and behaviors toward assisting their children with reading improve.

Quintero, E., & Huerta-Macias, A. (1990). All in the family: Bilingualism and biliteracy. *The Reading Teacher*, *44*, 306-312.

In this article, the authors discuss the goals of Project Family Initiative for English Literacy (FIEL) and the rationale for the model on which it is based. The curriculum and the context of the 5-step lessons are described. The article provides an example of one family's literacy growth within the project.

Raim, J. (1980). Who learns when parents teach children? *The Reading Teacher, 34,* 152-155

In this article, the author suggests that tutoring is an effective way to engage parents in assisting their children's literacy development. The benefits of tutoring to parents is as great as tutorial programs are to older children tutoring younger children. She then describes the Parents Assistance Program (PAP), a reading club that worked with second- and third-grade children from the two lowest functioning classes and their parents from an inner city elementary school in New York City. Despite several constraints on PAP (parents' limited school experience, lack of funds), club meetings that attempted to address children's individual reading needs and focused on specific reading skills were held each week. Reading skills such as whole word practice, phonics skills, comprehension skills, word meanings, and reading aloud were first demonstrated by the teacher and practiced by the parents before the parents would work alone with their own children. The results of the program indicated that half of the children moved closer to grade level and all improved on specific reading skills. Parents also reported improvements in their own reading skills. The author concludes that the potential for urban parents to assist children as tutors is often overlooked and that adult education models such as PAP result in reading benefits for all family members.

Rasinski, T., & Fredericks, A. (1991). Working with parents: The second best reading advice for parents. *The Reading Teacher, 44,* 438-439.

This brief article lists ways in which parents can promote a literate environment at home. Those ways include specifying a time and a place to read as a family and providing reading materials for everyone. Parents need to read a variety of materials and allow their children to see them. They need to talk about what is being read, encourage reading by connecting literature with family experiences, and provide materials for extensive writing.

Reutzel, D., & Fawson, P. (1990). Traveling Tales: Connecting parents and children through writing. *The Reading Teacher, 44,* 222-227.

In this article, the authors discuss the importance of helping children learn to view themselves as writers. They recognize the important role that parents play in the literacy development of their children and the responsibility of teachers to design activities that involve parents in their children's literacy. The authors created the *Traveling Tales* backpack to bring parents and children together in a shared writing event at home. The backpack is filled with an assortment of writing materials for the children to use while writing their stories at home with their parents. A list of basic guidelines is included in the *Traveling Tales* backpack in order to help guide parents in helping their children to generate story ideas and drafts. Parents are telephoned before the children take the backpacks home and there is a "Grandma" in the class who works with

49

those children whose parents do not want to participate. The authors conclude that the *Traveling Tales* backpack plan not only involves parents and children, but also siblings and even the neighborhood community.

Smith, C. (1991). Family literacy: The most important literacy. *The Reading Teacher*, *44*, 700-701.

This short article reviews trends in family literacy and four specific family literacy programs: (a) Parents and Children Together, which uses audiotapes and print materials to educate parents; (b) Work with Your Child, which uses videotapes to improve parents' interaction skills; (c) Parent and Child Education (PACE), which provides remedial instruction to the whole family; and (d) a library-based family literacy program, which is located in Blair County, Pennsylvania.

Strickland, D. S., & Morrow, L. (1989). Family literacy and young children (Emerging readers and writers). *The Reading Teacher*, *42*, 530-531.

In this article, the authors discuss the importance of the home environment in fostering children's literacy development. They maintain that teachers can work in collaboration with families by designing classroom activities that build on their home experiences. The authors present eight suggestions for teachers to share with parents in creating a home environment that encourages literacy development: (a) reading to children regularly, (b) being supportive of children's literacy activities, (c) making children aware of print around them, (d) visiting the library regularly, (e) modeling literacy activities for children, (f) sharing work-related materials with children, (g) making writing materials accessible, and (h) allowing time for children to share what they are writing.

Strickland, D., & Morrow, L. (1990). Family literacy: Sharing good books (Emerging readers and writers). *The Reading Teacher*, *43*, 518-519.

In this article, the authors directly address teachers as to how they can influence storybook reading in their students' homes. The relationship between the home environment and children's early reading is highlighted. Specific interactive parent-child behaviors that support read-aloud activities are discussed. The authors argue for the benefits of reading to children at certain times and for the use of a wide variety of books. Various genres and book titles are provided.

Talan, C. (1990). Family literacy: Libraries doing what libraries do best. *Wilson Library Bulletin*, *65*, 30-32.

The author of this article argues for the appropriateness of libraries as sites for family literacy workshops. Stating that libraries have a long history of involvement in many of the varied aspects of family literacy, the author argues that librarians are more committed to instilling a love of reading in children than teachers. The author also states that many libraries are already involved with family literacy and that states (especially California) and private industry fund these programs.

E. PARENT INVOLVEMENT AND FAMILY-SCHOOL CONNECTIONS

1. PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Baker, D. P., & Stevenson, D. L. (1986). Mothers' strategies for children's school achievement: Managing the transition to high school. *Sociology of Education*, *59*, 156-166.

This research reports on strategies used by mothers to increase their children's school achievement. The 41 subjects were randomly selected mothers of eighth graders from one middle school. The number and types of schooling strategies suggested by mothers did not vary among mothers, indicating a possible set of standard parenting strategies. Implementation of strategies was found to vary with the family's socioeconomic status. Mothers with at least a college degree were more well informed about their children's progress, had more contact with the teachers, and were more likely to take more action. These mothers were also more likely to select college preparation courses, regardless of the child's GPA. Higher SES parents had better skills with which to manage successfully their child's school career. Many strands for future research on parent-child-school relationships are suggested.

Chavkin, N. F., & Williams, D. L., Jr. (1985). Parent involvement in education. *School Social Work Journal*, *10*, 35-46.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the attitudes and practices of parents and educators toward parental involvement in their children's education. Self-report questionnaires were sent to and returned by 873 elementary school teachers, 575 teacher educators, 1,894 school policymakers, and an unreported number of parents from six states.

Results showed that among parents and educators general attitudes toward parental involvement were positive. However, results also showed that a great deal of disagreement exists about the role of parents in educational decision making. Both parents and teachers were positive about parents' roles as an audience for their children, as home tutors, and as school program supporters. The majority of current practices of parent involvement centered around attending school activities and parent conferences and helping their children with homework. The authors provide recommendations for how social workers can facilitate collaboration between parents and educators.

Chavkin, N. F., & Williams, D. L., Jr. (1989). Low-income parents' attitudes toward parent involvement in education. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare, 15*, 17-28.

The purpose of this study was to determine what the attitudes of low-income parents were toward parent involvement in education. Nine hundred seventy-eight parents in six states reported their family income and their views about education in a self-report questionnaire; of these respondents, 348 parents had incomes of less than $15,000. The questionnaire included seven parts that addressed parents' attitudes toward (a) general ideas about parent involvement, (b) interest in school decisions, (c) interest in parent involvement roles, (d) parent participation in involvement activities, (e) suggestions for improving parent involvement, (f) reasons for less parent involvement at the high school level, and (g) demographic information. The study showed that low-income parents are interested in parent involvement, but many of them felt a sense of helplessness about their ability to participate. Many stated that they had conflicts with their work schedules and needed more training to be involved. The authors conclude with recommendations for how social workers can facilitate low-income parents' involvement in education.

Duff, R. E., & Adams, M. E. (1981). Parents and teachers: Partners in improving reading skills. *Clearing House, 54*, 207-209.

The authors argue that parents and teachers rarely work together in pursuit of their common goal—the improvement of children's reading ability. They suggest that many teachers fail to acknowledge that parents have any role in their children's school success other than keeping them in attendance and suggesting that they be well behaved. The authors describe the home as a major influence on a child's ability to learn efficiently and suggest several changes for both the school and the home to set the stage for improvement in the child's growth toward reading competence: (a) modification of instructional practices (i.e., increased individualization), (b) adjustments in teachers' attitude (i.e., recognition of children's differences), and (c) adjustments in parents' attitude and behavior (i.e., realignment of family priorities that ensure attention to the child's interests and needs as a learner). The authors argue that meaningful and productive home-school support systems for children are a joint responsibility to be pursued and strengthened with equal concern by both parents and teachers.

Epstein, J. (1984). School policy and parent involvement: Research results. *Educational Horizons*, *62*, 70-72.

In this article, the author reviews the importance of parent involvement in the education of children and the federal policies generated by government projects and legislation. A study was conducted of the parent involvement policies of 600 elementary schools in Maryland. More than 80 teachers and 1200 parents participated in the study. The results suggest that there may be district-level policies that enable, encourage, and reward teachers who emphasize certain types of parent involvement. Parent involvement both at school and at home has some benefits, but the results indicate that the most beneficial policy for most parents is that of teachers involving parents in helping their children learn at home.

Epstein, J. (1986). Parents' reactions to teacher practices of parent involvement. *Elementary School Board Journal*, *86*, 277-294.

This study looks at parents' reports of involvement in their children's education and teachers' efforts to involve parents. A questionnaire was sent to parents who have children in 82 first-, third-, and fifth-grade classrooms in Maryland. Parents of 1,269 of the children completed and returned the forms—a response rate of 59 percent. Results show that the parents believed that schools could do more to involve them in their children's education and that many parents did not receive basic forms of communication from their schools, such as memos, conversations, phone calls, or conferences. Although few parents were involved in children's schools, most helped their children at home. Amount of parent involvement did not vary according to their level of education if the teachers were known to be expert at gaining parent involvement. Teachers who were not as active in involving parents tended to request the help of parents who had less formal schooling than more educated parents. The implications of this study are that more should be done to show parents how they can help teachers with their children's education.

Hannon, P., & Cuckle, P. (1984). Involving parents in the teaching of reading: A study of current school practice. *Educational Research*, *26*, 7-13.

Recent research results encourage schools to send books home with children so that the children can read to their parents. The authors investigate this practice in 16 infant and first schools in England. Based on interviews with head teachers, regular teachers, and students, results show that head teachers and other teachers had a generally positive attitude toward parents, but few allowed books to go home and fewer still monitored whether the books went home and were read. Most of the children interviewed did not read school books at home. The results also show that sending school books home for children to read is not a common practice, and children need to be encouraged to read the books that they do take home. The authors recommend that greater support and advice be provided to parents to assist them in reading with their children.

Hewison, J., & Tizard, J. (1980). Parental involvement and reading attainment. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *50*, 209-215.

The relationship between a number of home background factors and reading ability was studied in three samples of working-class children ages seven to eight, using standardized tests given to the children and parent interviews. The home background factor that emerged as most strongly related to reading achievement was whether the mother regularly heard the child read. Also, many parents coached their children in the mechanics of reading, which strongly related to reading performance. Coaching and IQ both made independent contributions to the prediction of reading performance, but children who were coached had IQs 11 points higher than those who were not. The lack of attention paid in the past to parental involvement in children's school work is commented upon in a discussion of the implications of the findings.

Hoskisson, K., Sherman, T., & Smith, L. (1974). Assisted reading and parent involvement. *The Reading Teacher*, *27*, 710-714.

Assisted reading is a technique based on the assumption that children may process written language in a similar manner to the way they process spoken language. Assisted reading varies according to the ability level, learning style, and preferences of the child. It involves the parent reading to the child, then the child beginning to read on her own, with the parent explaining any difficult words. A study was conducted with two reading-delayed second graders. The children read with their parents in three to five 15- to 20-minute sessions per week. The number of miscues in children's reading decreased, and their attitudes toward reading improved.

Johnston, K. (1989). Parents and reading: A U.K. perspective. *The Reading Teacher*, *42*, 352-357.

This article discusses the lack of parental involvement in children's education in the United Kingdom. The author states that the government's education policy is now shifting to encourage parental involvement, but few schools have formed programs to provide for it. In addition, she discusses the importance of parental involvement in reading, especially for lower income families in which parents lack the confidence and skills to promote their children's literacy. The author reviews several projects that investigated the relationship between parent-child reading and reading success and discusses the current model of paired reading. Citing research that supports this model's validity as a means of encouraging literacy, the author concludes by stating that schools need to use parent-child reading projects as a way to involve parents in their children's education.

Moles, O. (1982). Synthesis of recent research on parent participation in children's education. *Educational Leadership, 40*, 44-47.

This article synthesizes literature on parent participation related to effects of participation on achievement, nature of parent participation, barriers to home-school collaboration, and promising school programs. It concludes that (a) there is strong interest in the topic; (b) although there are many obstacles, educators need to re-examine prevailing beliefs about parents, their capabilities, and interests; (c) there is an interest in parent participation beyond the early elementary grades; and (d) the research information on parent participation is incomplete and evolving. The article concludes with a description of useful strategies for increasing parent participation.

Schaefer, E. S. (1972). Parents as educators: Evidence from cross-sectional, longitudinal and intervention research. *Young Children, 27*, 227-239.

The educational role of parents is currently being reassessed. The development of programs to train parents to foster the intellectual development of their children has been a major response to the need for early and continuing education of children. However, educational professions and institutions often assume a restricted classroom perspective rather than the more comprehensive lifetime and life space perspective. The author of this review tries to gain a lifetime and lifespan perspective by looking at numerous types of literature on family life. The accumulating evidence suggests that parents have a great amount of influence upon the behavior of their children, particularly their intellectual and academic achievement, and programs that teach parents skills in educating their children are effective supplements or alternatives to preschool education. The review concludes that an exclusive focus upon academic education will not solve major educational problems.

Strickland, D., Morrow, L., Taylor, D., & Walls, L. (1990). Educating parents about their children's early literacy development (Emerging readers and writers). *The Reading Teacher*, *44*, 72-74.

In this article, the authors describe how one teacher informs parents about the literacy activities in her classroom, the children's growth in literacy, and ways that they can encourage their children's literacy. She sends home a flyer at the beginning of the year describing how children acquire literacy, has conferences with the parents, sends home a weekly newsletter, and writes biographic literacy profiles for the children. Through these activities, the teacher maintains a good working relationship with the parents of the children that she teaches and reduces parents' anxiety about their children's reading ability.

Strom, R., & Johnson, A. (1974). The parent as a teacher. *Education*, *95*, 40-43.

Research suggests that parents need to be involved in their children's education in a way that encourages children's individuality and creativity. The Arizona State University Parent-Child Center used a parental self-inventory, the Parent as a Teacher (PAAT), and its accompanying questionnaire, which focuses on the child's perception of parental behavior to identify discrepancies between the child's and mother's perception of her teaching behavior. After being tested on the PAAT, 70 Anglo, Mexican-American, and black mothers engaged in an eight-week education program in which they learned how to use toys as a medium of instruction. Gains were shown, using the PAAT as a postprogram measure, in the mothers' perceptions of themselves as teachers, their knowledge of the teaching-learning process, the children's perceptions of themselves as learners, and the children's word recognition.

Tizard, J., Schofield, W., & Hewison, J. (1982). Symposium: Reading collaboration between teachers and parents in assisting children's reading. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *52*, 1-15.

The purpose of this study was to determine if a causal relationship exists between active parental help and reading performance. The study included six schools, located in a disadvantaged working-class area of London, which were randomly assigned to three groups: parent involvement, extra teacher help, and control. The parents of the students in the parent involvement group agreed to listen to their children read on a regular basis. The authors suggest from the results that (a) parents with limited English literacy skills from inner-city, multiracial schools can be involved in and beneficial to their children's education, (b) children who receive parental help are better readers than those who do not, (c) parents and children involved in collaboration have better attitudes toward reading, (d) small-group instruction in reading given by a specialist did not produce improvements in reading comparable to those obtained from parent collaboration, and (e) parental collaboration was effective for all children at different levels of reading ability.

Vukelich, C. (1978). Parents are teachers: A beginning reading program. *The Reading Teacher, 31,* 524-527.

The purpose of the Preschool Readiness Outreach Program (PROP) was to share with the parents of three- to five-year-olds ideas on ways that they could help their children develop beginning reading skills. Two methods were used; workshops and monthly newsletters were developed. At the workshops, parents learned how to construct games to teach skills basic to early reading and they were able to ask questions about child development. The monthly newsletters suggested ways to use readily available materials to stimulate and enhance children's beginning reading and language skills.

Winter, M., & Rouse, J. (1990). Fostering intergenerational literacy: The Missouri Parents as Teachers Program. *The Reading Teacher, 43,* 382-386.

The authors of this article describe the Missouri-based Parents as Teachers Program, which is a home-school partnership providing parent education and support services for families with preschool children. The authors discuss the program's history, evaluation, services, curriculum, means of promoting literacy, and the parent-child activities that the program teaches. The authors also describe the new methods that the program is using to extend literacy into the homes of disadvantaged families. As a result of home visits to seven families, those families were excited and interested in the program and their children demonstrated greater interest in books and reading.

2. FAMILY-SCHOOL CONNECTIONS

Brantlinger, E. (1985). What low-income parents want from schools: A different view of aspirations. *Interchange, 16,* 14-28.

In this study, personal interviews with low-income parents were conducted in order to learn what expectations they have for their children's education. The main purpose identified by parents was to teach basic skills such as reading, writing, and math; vocational skills; and social skills. The parents gave various reasons for quitting school. Some saw high school only as a preparation for college or as a means to gain the status symbol of a diploma, rather than as a way to gain valuable skills. Some parents did not view education as a means of social mobility, and others wanted their children to quit in order to confirm their opinions of school, since they had dropped out themselves. Most parents did not feel responsible for their children's education. These parents were fully aware of class discrimination, and they did not see education as a means of achievement. The authors concluded that school and society must change in order for these parents' children to benefit from education.

Coleman, J. (1987). Families and schools. *Educational Researcher, 16*, 32-38.

Coleman argues that there is an increasing shift of responsibility away from families toward schools for taking care of children and that modern industrialized society has weakened both family bonds and parents' authority. Schools, Coleman suggests, must change in order to respond to differences in the family. Stating that children in strong, supportive families perform better than children not getting this motivation, Coleman makes a case for what he calls *social capital*. Social capital is defined as the norms, social networks, and relationships between children and adults that are important for a child's growth and development. Social capital still exists in the family and the community, but it has eroded during the past 25 years.

Edwards, P. (in press). Connecting African-American parents and youth to the school's reading curriculum. In V. L. Gadsden & D. A. Wagner (Eds.), *Literacy among African-American youth: Issues in learning, teaching, and schooling*. Creskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

The author supports the view that children need to have a print-rich home environment in which their parents read to them in order to learn how to read easily. Edwards developed the Parents as Partners in Reading Program, which she first used with a targeted school in Donaldsonville, Louisiana. A course was offered to the teachers and administrators at the school through the university extension on the importance of teachers in developing home and school connections, and a course was offered at the school for mothers in the community. Edwards gained the support of community members, who encouraged the mothers to become involved in the program. Teachers in the program modeled for parents the skills needed to read a book in an effective way with a child. At the conclusion of the class, the mothers' literacy ability had improved; the children's school achievement had increased; and the school, parents, and community had worked together for a common goal—the benefit of the children.

Epstein, J. (1987). Toward a theory of family-school connections: Teacher practices and parent involvement. In K. Hurrelman, F. Kaufmann, & F. Lose (Eds.), *Social intervention: Potential and constraints* (pp. 120-136). New York: A. De Gruyter.

Three perspectives about school and family relations currently guide researchers' and practitioners' thinking: separate, shared, or sequential responsibilities of families and schools. Symbolic interactionism and reference group theories help explain the mechanisms for building family and school relations. By tracing the history of family-school relations, Epstein explains why changes are needed in the theories of family-school connections. She describes a new theory, which characterizes family and school interactions as a model of overlapping family and school spheres. This theory generates the concept of school-like families and family-like schools and influences how the amount of time children spend in and out of school is viewed. Epstein's surveys indicate that many benefits are derived from a greater overlap of families and schools than currently exists.

Epstein, J. (1990). School and family connections: Theory, research, and implication for integrating sociologies of education and family. In D. Unger & M. Sussman (Eds.), *Families in community settings: Interdisciplinary perspectives* (pp. 99-126). New York: Hayworth Press.

The author discusses the theoretical advances in school and family connections. The views contrast according to whether school and home are viewed as separate, sequenced, embedded, or overlapping. Epstein reviews the research on family environments, the impact of these environments on schools, and the impact of schools on parents, students, and teachers. In addition, Epstein lists five types of parent involvement in the schools and discusses how most schools could organize, evaluate, and improve parent involvement. Epstein also suggests that the research be extended to encompass the changes that are occurring in families in order to include nontraditional family types. Epstein concludes by discussing the implications of linking the sociologies of education and family in research and professional training.

Hess, R. D., & Holloway, S. D. (1984). Family and school as educational institutions. In R. Parke (Ed.), *Review of child development research* (Vol. 7, pp. 179-222). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

This chapter reviews literature on the relationship between the family and school as institutions jointly responsible for educating children and for socializing them to achieve academically. Hess and Holloway consider (a) conceptualizations of the socializing and educational roles of the two institutions and the role of the child in the school, (b) issues of continuity and mismatch between school and home socialization, (c) the family's effect on academic achievement and cognitive ability, and (d) the ways in which families influence achievement by teaching certain cognitive behaviors as well as social and motivational behaviors.

Kagan, S. (1988). Home-school linkages: History's legacies and the family support movement. In S. Kagan, D. Powell, B. Weissbourd, & E. Zigler (Eds.), *America's family support programs* (pp. 161-181). New Haven: Yale University Press.

Kagan explores the continuities and discontinuities between family support efforts in schools today and in the past. Holding that today's efforts are rooted in past traditions of family-school relationships, Kagan states that the current movement stems from the needs of contemporary families themselves. Kagan suggests that the family support movement includes a wide range of participants and, therefore, necessitates tolerance of cultural pluralism, ethnic diversity, partnerships, and collaboration in which parents are seen as making contributions rather than seeking control. The author argues that family-school collaboration is important for family support and education in general in the United States. Kagan proposes that these programs should be supported in the following ways: (a) dissemination of information about programs to potential adopters, including the general public who would know about the strengths and needs of the American family; (b) longitudinal evaluations of family support programs; and (c) analyses of how public policies can be developed to be sensitive to family needs without overtaking them.

Lareau, A. (1987). Social class differences in family-school relationships: The importance of cultural capital. *Sociology of Education*, *60*, 73-85.

The author contrasts the cultural capital that white middle-class families bring to the school experience with that of white working-class families. The author observed two first-grade classrooms: one in a working-class school and one in a middle-class school. Six students from each classroom were chosen, and their parents were interviewed at the end of the children's first-grade and second-grade years. The results suggest that both sets of parents valued educational achievement equally. However, school personnel often held the opinion that while middle-class parents value school and raise children who also value school, working-class parents do not. The study found that many working-class parents were not involved in school activities because they believed that they were unprepared to read to their children and that school and home were two discrete and separate spheres. These parents also had difficulties participating because they lacked the time, transportation, or adequate child care.

Mounts, N., Lamborn, S., & Steinberg, L. (1989, April). *Relations between family processes and school achievement in different ethnic contexts*. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Kansas City, MO.

In this paper, the authors investigated the relationship between parenting style and adolescent academic achievement across several different ethnic groups. The authors decided to look at three independent factors of parental style—behavioral control (or parental monitoring), authoritativeness, and family order—and how they affect the student's grade point average (GPA). They also looked at how the effect of parenting style affects diverse ethnic and socioeconomic status groups. The authors used two self-report questionnaires to gather data. The population in the study consisted of 7,000 high school students from two different states with diverse ethnic and SES backgrounds. The results suggest that authoritativeness and family order correlate strongly with GPA for white students and weakly for Hispanic students. For black students, behavioral freedom and authoritativeness correlate with success, but for black and Asian students, family order is the most important variable.

Rich, D., Mattox, B., & Van Dien, J. (1979). Building on family strengths: The "nondeficit" involvement model for teaming home and school. *Educational Leadership*, *36*, 506-510.

This article describes the theoretical orientation and programs of the Home and School Institute (HSI). The authors emphasize that educators must view families from a nondeficit standpoint; that is, parents are willing and able to help their children learn, and schools have the capabilities of reaching out and affecting parent involvement. The authors developed a curriculum for parents based on specific, practical, no-cost activities for learning at home that do not duplicate the work at school. Four programs in which children demonstrate academic gains from the use of the HSI curriculum are described.

Stevenson, D. L., & Baker, D. P. (1987). The family-school relation and the child's school performance. *Child Development*, *58*, 1348-1357.

Using a national representative sample of American families, the authors investigated (a) the relationship between the mother's education and parental involvement in school activities, (b) the relationship between parental involvement in school activities and the child's school performance, and (c) the differential effects of these relationships for children of different ages and genders. The authors found that the higher the educational status of the mother, the more involved the parents are in school activities and in schooling; that parental involvement is related to the child's school performance; and that the younger the child, the more the parents are involved in school activities. Parents' ages and educational levels were found to be stronger predictors of their involvement in schooling for boys than for girls. Parental educational status was not directly related to children's school performance except through parental involvement in school activities. This study shows how parents invest in and manage the school careers of their children. The findings emphasize the importance of studying the relationship between families and schools.

F. FAMILY AND PARENT EDUCATION

1. FAMILY PROGRAMS

Chilman, C. (1973). Programs for disadvantaged parents: Some major trends and related research. In B. M. Caldwell & H. N. Ricciuti (Eds.), *Review of child development research* (Vol. 3, pp. 403-465). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

This chapter reviews parent participation programs both historically and conceptually, relating them to social changes in the United States (i.e., increased attention to a more participatory democracy). There is an emphasis on participation as a means of providing opportunities for disadvantaged parents to gain more power and influence over their environment. Chilman describes other concurrent trends and bodies of associated research related to programs that stress changes in parents as individuals. Mostly, parent education projects had low participation and minimal impact. Home tutoring projects were a new trend in parent education that offered more hope for positive change. Chilman next reviews the research on programs intended to increase parental employment, projects intended to address the role that parents may take as advisers and policymakers in programs that affect themselves and their children, family planning programs, welfare reform, and assessment of parental education programs.

Cleary, P. (1988). Social support: Conceptualization and measurement. In H. Weiss & F. Jacobs (Eds.), *Evaluating family programs* (pp. 195-216). New York: A. De Gruyter.

Social support and family functioning are crucial to a child's well being and development. Studies on social support were investigated with respect to general health and program evaluations. Social support is still in the process of being defined, and definitions and measures vary along several dimensions. Several measures of social support—in terms of the structure of social networks, the functions of social support, confidence measures, and family measures—are listed. The means of developing a measure is outlined.

Cochran, M. (1987). Empowering families: An alternative to the deficit model. In K. Hurrelmann, F. Kaufmann, & F. Lose (Eds.), *Social intervention: Potential and constraints* (pp. 105-120). New York: A. De Gruyter.

The author begins by arguing that the greatest problem facing American families is society's ignorance of the liabilities of the economic system (i.e., power inequity, unemployment, and exploitation of the environment). According to the author, interventions directed at individuals and families with such social problems have been based on a *deficit model*. The thesis of the chapter is that the target of an intervention should be the systems surrounding the family rather than individual family members or families themselves. Using the concept of *empowerment*, Urie Bronfenbrenner, William E. Cross, Jr., and the author of this paper created a model intervention program, the Family Matters Program, which involved 276 families in Syracuse, all with 3-year-old children. The program was based on the assumptions that all families have some strengths and that parents know more about their children than experts. The goal of the program, which was based on home visits, was to support the parenting role. The effects of the program were (a) changes in mothers' perceptions of themselves as parents, (b) changes in mothers' social networks, (c) greater contact between home and school when the child was having trouble, and (d) higher performance in first grade. Cochran concludes that the program met most of the empowerment criteria, but it was unsuccessful in stimulating critical reflection in parents or changing the balance of power between families and controlling institutions.

Duvall, E. M. (1988). Family development's first forty years. *Family Relations*, *37*, 127-134.

The history of family and human development and its interdisciplinary facets such as the critical periods in physical development, the process of personal development, psychosexual development, psychosocial development, cognitive development, and moral development are reviewed. Longitudinal studies of human development are described, and the conceptualization of the family life cycle, the ways in which it varies across families and cultures, and the possibility that it is universal, are discussed. The developmental tasks of individuals and families are considered. The author concludes by presenting examples of the applications of family developmental concepts by a variety of practitioners in the field.

Goodson, B., Swartz, J., & Millsap, M. (1991). Working with families: Promising programs to help parents support young children's learning. *Equity and Choice*, *7*, 97-107.

This article describes 17 family education programs.The programs utilize a variety of approaches to family education, including home visits, group parent education, and parent/child classes. Curricula and instruction vary across the programs and within the programs according to the needs of the parents and children. The programs use a variety of recruitment techniques, but the most effective was personal communication between new, potential clients and old, established clients. Family participation in the programs was maintained through a variety of methods. The authors make the following suggestions: (a) staff should include paraprofessionals and professionals, with some hired from the community; (b) paid staff are more effective than volunteers; and (c) strategies with local school districts are helpful. All of the programs studied are related to local school districts. Research establishing the effects of the programs has been limited because of lack of funding. Future issues and challenges for family education are discussed.

Hamilton, M. L. (1972). Evaluation of a parent and child center program. *Child Welfare*, *51*, 248-258.

This report describes changes in child development and in child-related behaviors that occurred in children and parents who participated in a preschool intervention program. The national pilot project, involving more than 30 parent and child centers, was established by the federal Office of Economic Opportunity in 1967. The centers are intended to provide comprehensive services to disadvantaged families (primarily Chicano) with children under three years old. The centers provided health care, child activities, parent activities, social services, and stimulated community awareness. The primary goal was to counteract the detrimental effects of poverty on children. Eighteen families were tested to assess the impact of the program. Results indicate that the children performed better on a variety of motor, language, and social skills measures. Mothers' knowledge of community agencies increased. The evaluation concluded that the program was of substantial benefit in the areas of greatest deficiency in the development of the children and in the child-related behaviors of the mothers.

Haskins, R., & Adams, D. (1983). Parent education and public policy: Synthesis and recommendations. In R. Haskins & D. Adams (Eds.), *Parent education and public policy* (pp. 346-373). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

This paper addresses the question of whether social scientists can say anything to policymakers about parent education. The authors review the history of federal involvement in parent education and discuss four rules for data to be suitable for policymaking: replication, significance, longitudinal data, and large-scale implementation. The authors suggest that policy analysis clearly state the policy problem and the analysis

64

criteria. Parent education programs are analyzed using four criteria—(a) preference satisfaction, (b) efficacy, (c) equity, and (d) stigma. The paper concludes with recommendations for future programs.

Howrigan, G. A. (1988). Evaluating parent-child interaction outcomes of family support and education programs. In H. Weiss & F. Jacobs (Eds.), *Evaluating family programs* (pp. 95-130). New York: A. De Gruyter.

In this chapter, Howrigan discusses the limitations of early theories of socialization (i.e., unidirectional, exclusive focus on mother and child, cultural absolutism, the deficit model, and nonobservational research) and of early attempts at measuring parent-child interaction. In discussing the current state of research, the author recommends (a) using multiple research methods (i.e., investigators should seek a greater degree of ecological validity and use of multiple measures), (b) taking into account the complexities of the effects of interactions, and (c) using culturally appropriate research methods. The author also argues for more ethnographic investigation of community child-rearing goals, expectations, and theories.

Jenkins, S. (1988). Ethnicity and family support. In S. Kagan, D. Powell, B. Weissbourd, & E. Zigler (Eds.), *America's family support programs* (pp. 282-293). New Haven: Yale University Press.

The authors argue that in developing programs for ethnic families, it is necessary to be aware of their culture even more than of their language. Ethnicity is a concept that is difficult to define precisely, but certain general definitions have been attempted. Historically, government support agencies have been aimed only at the cultural norm; today, agencies recognize the need to consider cultural and ethnic issues. A field study was conducted of 54 ethnic agencies in the United States. The three major issues addressed in the study were considerations of culture, consciousness, and mixing or matching along racial lines. A study was also conducted to investigate ethnic associations formed by the new immigrant groups, mainly Asians and Hispanics, because of the family support services and counseling that these associations provide. Findings from a sample of 72 programs indicated that ethnicity is a significant variable in the composition of the population being served, the staff, and the program format.

Kagan, S., Powell, D., Weissbourd, B., & Zigler, E. (1988). Past accomplishments: Future challenges. In S. Kagan, D. Powell, B. Weissbourd, & E. Zigler (Eds.), *America's family support programs* (pp. 365-380). New Haven: Yale University Press.

This article reviews the nature, accomplishments, and challenges of as well as the recommendations for American family support programs that blend both service to and advocacy for families and family issues. The major contributions are prevention programs for social problems, information about the organization and development of communities and institutions, the elimination of paternalism in government programs, and universal services. The authors suggest that family support programs face various conceptual challenges, such as whom they are to serve, and various practical challenges, such as how to raise funding. Recommendations for the future include enhancing public awareness, coalescing and expanding advocacy efforts, mobilizing the research community, joining the funding sources, and clarifying the government's role.

Rasinski, T. (1988). Bridging the gap: Intergenerational collaboration. *Educational Forum, 53*, 77-88.

This article describes a collaboration project between a middle school and a local retirement village for the purpose of integrating traditional curriculum content with notions of social responsibility and altruism. The philosophical underpinnings are found in the works of Jane Adams and Martin Buber. Approximately 30 students work together in pairs with their partners from the retirement village for a 6-week period, which culminates in an event celebrating the new friendships. Students, assisted by teachers, plan, monitor, and evaluate the 6-week program. The program contributes to positive shifts in students' attitudes toward aging and an appreciation of the warmth and empathy toward older persons. Students who have completed the program better separate facts from stereotypes about aging and demonstrate a better understanding of the physical and psychological aspects of aging.

Rodriguez, G., & Cortez, C. (1988). The evaluation experience of the *Avance* Parent-Child Education Program. In H. Weiss & F. Jacobs (Eds.), *Evaluating family programs* (pp. 287-301). New York: A. De Gruyter.

This paper outlines the process by which the *Avance* Educational Programs for Parents and Children was evaluated, why it was evaluated, and what the results were. In 1984-1985, the agency provided five programs to lower income Hispanic families in San Antonio, Texas. The evaluation investigated two questions: (a) Which sociocultural, economic, and contextual factors and conditions can predict physical child abuse? (b) How can participation in a parenting education program (such as Avance) result in lowered severity of discipline among participating parents? The researchers discovered that the greatest factor in child abuse is economic stress, and related factors include a lack of knowledge of child needs, strict attitudes towards parenting, and few parenting skills.

Shaw, K. (1991, August). *Skillman Foundation Intergenerational RFP: Field report.* Ann Arbor: Formative Evaluation Research Associates.

The Skillman Foundation funds 11 intergenerational projects. This final report provides descriptions of the individual projects. Three of the projects were knowledge dissemination projects designed to conduct research and/or disseminate information to practitioners, researchers, and policymakers interested in the field. The remaining eight projects were direct programming projects, which were funded to develop and administer actual intergenerational projects bringing seniors and youth together. The report also provides an overview of the benefits to both the elderly and the young derived from intergenerational programs, pitfalls that the programs face, and suggestions from program administrators on how to run a successful intergenerational program.

Upshur, C. (1988). Measuring parent outcomes in family program evaluation. In H. Weiss & F. Jacobs (Eds.), *Evaluating family programs* (pp. 131-152). New York: A. De Gruyter.

Early intervention programs emphasize the importance of family involvement in child development; however, they have few means by which to evaluate the change occurring in parents. This article reviews the roles of the parent and family in development and lists parent variables (e.g., attitudes and behaviors, parenting knowledge, and personal development). The author describes how to design program evaluations with parent outcomes and details recommended measures of parent variables. Measures of parent attitude and behavior include Caldwell and Bradley's HOME and Strom's Parent as a Teacher (PAAT). Program questionnaires can be used as a measure of child development knowledge. Personality tests, such as locus-of-control and self-esteem scales, can be used to measure the parent's personal development. The Parenting Stress Index (PSI) can also be used.

Williams, K. (1988). Cultural diversity in family support: Black families. In H. Weiss & F. Jacobs (Eds.), *Evaluating family programs* (pp. 295-306). New York: A. De Gruyter.

This article discusses the importance of cultural sensitivity in public social service agencies. The author investigates the traditional authoritarian mode of social service delivery and the strategies to make it more family oriented and culturally sensitive. Furthermore, the author reviews the foster care system as an example of a social service agency that needs to change. The four strategies suggested to change the system are (a) building on the strengths of minority families, (b) employing an ecological approach, (c) maintaining flexibility, and (d) shifting the research base to the family.

2. PARENT EDUCATION/PARENT LEARNING

Bell, T. H. (1975). The child's right to have a trained parent. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling*, *9*, 271-276.

In this article, which is based on several studies, the author argues that too many parents, especially teenage parents, lack the knowledge and skills to be effective parents. They expect too much too soon of their children and then abuse their infants for failing to meet unrealistic expectations. Bell argues that children denied effective parenting are too severely disadvantaged to compete with their peers in school or in adult life and asserts that a child has a birth-right to trained parents. The issues addressed include the content of training, who should be involved in training, and which questions, particularly about sociopolitical issues, should be asked. Several programs are discussed.

Cassidy, J. & Vukelich, C. (1978). Survival reading for parents and kids: A parent education program. *The Reading Teacher*, *31*, 638-641.

In this article, the authors state that *survival reading*, or the ability to read material common to everyday life, is a skill that should be taught at the elementary level. The authors also argue that parents can function as their children's teachers. They describe a parent education program designed by one school district, which developed a series of workshops to provide parents of primary grade children with materials and ideas for teaching their children survival reading. The parents reported positive gains in their children's ability and attitude towards reading words in the real world.

Doneson, S. G. (1991). Reading as a second chance: Teen mothers and children's books. *Journal of Reading*, *35*, 220-223.

This article describes a literacy program for pregnant and parenting high school students. The program's goals were to encourage reading by providing materials about raising children in order to familiarize students with the different types of popular books and magazines available on parenting, and to introduce children's books appropriate to various ages and developmental stages. The students were able and motivated to acquire and read expository texts related to parenting. The program not only gave the students books to read to their children but also provided an outlet for discussion of deep personal issues and problems of the students. At the end of the program, the class had formed a cohesive unit in which the students could discuss both parenting and personal issues.

Laosa, L. (1983). Parent education, cultural pluralism, and public policy: The uncertain connection. In R. Haskins & D. Adams (Eds.), ***Parent education and public policy*** **(pp. 331-345). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.**

In this chapter, Laosa raises questions and reviews research that bear on the connection between the policymaking process and the families or individuals who ultimately are affected by the policy. Laosa's concerns center on the research, values, and assumptions on which the policies are based. The author argues that the work of social scientists on parent education reinforces popular misconceptions and stereotypes on the basis of rather limited research and that their interpretations and methods are cast within the deficit or social pathology paradigm. Grounding the discussion in literature on the Mexican community, Laosa reviews his own work on the differences between Chicano and non-Hispanic white families in young children's first experiences with activities involving maternal teaching and learning. The author concludes that society should guard against placing an inordinate share of the blame for its social problems on families and that the real sources of the problems may lie elsewhere.

Maclay, C. M., & Askov, E. N. (1988). Computers and adult beginning readers: An intergenerational study. ***Lifelong Learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research, 11,*** **23-25.**

Through the Penn State Adult Literacy Courseware Project, funded by the Pennsylvania State Department of Education, Chapter 1 programs were provided with computer-assisted instruction (CAI) courseware, which was designed to expand word recognition for adult nonreaders. An underlying goal was that as parents improved their reading skills, their children would become more responsive to education and learning. According to the authors, the group of 52 parents who completed the project using CAI courseware gained more than one year in reading level during the total of 20 hours of instruction. After the study, the school attendance of the participants' children also improved. The children who were with their parents during the classes showed the greatest increase in interest in learning, and parents improved their ability to read to their children.

Nickse, R., Speicher, A. M., & Buchek, P. C. (1988). An intergenerational adult literacy project: A family intervention/prevention model. ***Journal of Reading, 31,*** **634-642.**

This pilot study, by the Family Learning Center at Boston University, describes a program designed to help adults improve their literacy skills and support their children's reading development. All of the children were enrolled in Chapter 1 reading programs. The article presents a categorization of research studies upon which the intergenerational approach was based: (a) home environment factors, (b) shared reading activities, (c) parents as reading models, and (d) parents' attitudes towards education. The demographic profiles of the 30 adult participants are reported, and the intervention techniques are described. The results are considered in terms of reading progress in vocabulary and comprehension and of retention in the program. Results suggest that reading gains increase as a function of the number of hours of tutoring. After analyzing this study as well as other research, the authors provide conclusions and recommendations for intergenerational literacy programs that could serve as guidelines to facilitate successful programs.

Parker, J. M. (1989). Building bridges in midtown Manhattan: An intergenerational literacy program. *Urban Education, 24*, 109-115.

This study describes an adult literacy program in which semiliterate adults improve their skills by reading to children at a New York City daycare center. The adults used developmentally appropriate books with the children without losing their own self-esteem. The program was designed to enable adults to help children.

Powell, D. (1991). *Strengthening parental contributions to school readiness and early school learning*. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University, Department of Child Development and Family Studies. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 340 467)

This paper is a synthesis of the research pertaining to parental beliefs and behaviors that prepare children for school success. The first part of the paper discusses the difficulties of defining school readiness and the ramifications of different definitions. The second section investigates the parent practices and beliefs that are associated with school readiness and early school success. The author focuses on preschool children and looks at parental beliefs and behaviors that relate to children globally, to their development and ability, to achievement expectations, to parent-child verbal exchanges, to affective relationships, and to control and discipline strategies. The third section investigates parents' existing beliefs and practices in relation to preparing their children for school. The author also discusses the research on strategies for improving and increasing involvement and concludes that using only printed material will not assist low-income families in learning supportive behaviors. Implications for practice and suggestions for future research are presented.

Sparling, J., & Lowman, B. (1983). Parent information needs as revealed through interests, problems, attitudes, and preferences. In R. Haskins & D. Adams (Eds.), *Parent education and public policy* (pp. 304-323). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

This study investigated the type and medium of information about children that parents want and need. A questionnaire was mailed out, and 1,458 responses were used. The authors also interviewed 100 high-risk parents in order to obtain a stratified sample. The questionnaire investigated the parents' information interests, problems, and attitudes and how they were interrelated. The authors also investigated which sources of information were preferred for different content areas. Comparisons were made between the responses of the high-risk parents and the middle-class parents. The authors found that overall, parents want comprehensive information on a broad variety of topics and that relationships exist among attitudes, interests, and a variety of demographic variables.

Stevens, J. H., Jr.(1978). Parent education programs: What determines effectiveness? *Young Children, 33,* 59-65.

This article reviews the research studies of systematic programs designed to enhance the parent's role as a teacher and to improve the child's functioning. It seeks to answer the questions: (a) What are the characteristics of effective parent education programs? (b) What changes in child and parent behavior do effective programs produce? (c) What types of parents benefit from parent education programs that emphasize enhancing the parent's role as teacher of the child? (d) What are the different effects of different types of programs? (e) Do group consultation models result in slightly different outcomes than individual consultation approaches? Some general conclusions are that good programs are fairly prescriptive if parents are used as consultants and that the best programs use home visits and/or group meetings.

Stevens, J. H., Jr. (1984). Child development, knowledge and parenting skills. *Family Relations, 33,* 237-244.

The author examined how parents' knowledge about child development is related to their ability to build supportive learning environments at home and to interact in ways that stimulate young children's development. A total of 243 black and white mothers of infants participated in the study. The author found that parents who knew more about critical environmental factors and normative development for infants scored higher on the measure of parenting skills. Stevens concedes that more work is needed in developing assessment measures of child development knowledge and that other variables must be taken into account when looking at parenting skills. However, the author does say that enough evidence exists to support the need for wider dissemination of child development information, which will not only enhance the parents' own knowledge base but also that of others in their children's social network.

G. CONTEXTUAL/CULTURAL ISSUES

Bradley, R., Rock, S., Caldwell, B., Harris, P., & Hamrick, H. (1987). Home environment and school performance among black elementary school children. *Journal of Negro Education*, *56*, 499-509.

The study discusses the relationship between home environment and school performance for female and male African-American students. Thirty-five black children between the ages of 8 and 10 and attending Little Rock, Arkansas public schools participated in the study. Factors that were found to contribute most to students' school performance are the responsiveness of parents and the emotional climate of the home. Other modest variables include type and amount of reading materials in the home, positive paternal involvement, and the physical environment of the home. The presence of an involved father and family appears to have a salutary effect on boys' classroom behavior but not strikingly on performance on achievement tests. The author believes it may be more difficult to assist black males than females in coping with stress resulting from a general disinvestment in all institutions.

Farr, M. (1989). *Learning literacy lyrically: Informal education among Mexicanos in Chicago.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Anthropological Association, Washington, DC.

Farr conducted an ethnographic study of a network of Mexican immigrants (about 45 people) in Chicago who become self-educated through a social network process. Farr used ethnographic methods—field notes, interviews, participant observation—in order to study this process. The team of researchers found that social networks are important to Mexican immigrants for economic and emotional support and survival. They noted the *compadrazgo* (god-parent) relationships that operated in lieu of family ties and served to connect Mexicans of the urban immigrant population to their original communities in Guanajuato and Michoacan. The Guanajuato men in the study had received little or no formal schooling before coming to the United States. Like members of 17th-century, working-class English communities, economic factors forced them to work soon after they could walk. However, as immigrants, they had new needs for literacy and wanted to maintain close ties to loved ones in Mexico through written correspondence. As in England, these men learned to read and write with friends who themselves were not highly literate. The process was described as *lyrical*, that is, without a teacher or books, mainly using the spoken word, like learning to play the guitar. In interviews, it was apparent that the men gave each other much emotional support throughout the process of learning to read and write. This article also has merit in its own right as an ethnographic study of social networks and self/social education in a Mexican immigrant community.

Ferdman, B. M. (1990). Literacy and cultural identity. *Harvard Educational Review, 60,* 181-204.

In this article, the author seeks to provide a theoretical framework for investigating the way literacy and culture affect each other at the individual level. The author explores the role of values in the definition of American society and how beliefs about the nature of the relationship between individuals and groups determine a society's perspective toward ethnic relations. The author asserts that literacy is culturally framed and defined. This influences how members of different cultures define literate behavior and engage in literacy acquisition and activity. He investigates cultural identity at both the individual and group levels and argues that the values transmitted in the process of literacy education can influence the cultural identity of individuals. In conclusion, he argues that society must acknowledge the links between literacy and culture in order for all people to acquire literacy.

Franklin, E. (1986). Literacy instruction for LES children. *Language Arts, 63,* 51-60.

In this article, the author suggests that literacy learning and usage are culturally based. The cultural assumptions that teachers bring to literacy instruction affect the way they teach and evaluate literacy skills. Excerpts from transcripts of bilingual classrooms studied in 1982 demonstrate that many first-grade teachers expect children to have metalinguistic knowledge of sounds, letters, and words; to know vocabulary words used in the basal readers; and to be able to verbalize simple phonics rules. When Hispanic, limited English-speaking children had difficulty with these skills, their cultural and language background was blamed, rather than the teaching methods, materials, or teacher assumptions. Franklin proposes that literacy instruction based on real life, contextualized literacy use, exposure to literacy for a variety of purposes, and the use of texts that express familiar and relevant concepts will best help limited English-speaking students develop literacy.

Harris, V. J. (1990). African American children's literature: The first one hundred years. *Journal of Negro Education, 59,* 540-555.

In this article, the author discusses the factors that have restricted the use and awareness of children's literature written by and for African-American children in America's educational system. She reviews the historical development of literature written for African-American children by discussing the selective tradition of choosing children's books that present oppressive stereotypes of African Americans prevalent in the late 1800s. The author then traces the development and incorporation of African-American literature throughout the 20th century. She emphasizes the importance of good literature in the development of literacy by stating that literature serves a cultural purpose as a mediator between children, cultural knowledge, and socialization by adults. Therefore, children need to see reflections of themselves and affirmation of their cultural heritage in school books. If they do, the author argues, children will be more likely to read and place value in schooling.

Harrison, A., Wilson, M., Pine, C., Chan, S., & Buriel, R. (1990). Family ecologies of ethnic minority children. *Child Development*, *61*, 347-362.

This article suggests that the ecologies of ethnic minorities, their adaptive strategies, their socialization goals, and their children's cognitive developmental outcomes are interrelated. Demographic information on the ethnic minorities discussed is provided. The authors investigate African Americans, Native Americans/Alaskan Natives, Asian Pacific Americans, and Hispanics, because these groups are included in their definition of minorities incorporated into a society through slavery, conquest, or colonization. The authors propose that in order to cope with the pressures of their ethnic stratification status, minorities should develop adaptive strategies including the extension of families and role flexibility, biculturalism, and ancestral world view. By using these adaptive strategies, minority parents can encourage positive orientation towards the ethnic group and socialization for interdependence in their children, and as a result, their children will develop cognitive flexibility and sensitivity to discontinuities.

McLoyd, V. C. (1990). The impact of economic hardship on black families and children: Psychological distress, parenting, and socio-emotional development. *Child Development*, *61*, 311-346.

The studies reviewed in this article reflect agreement about the effects of economic hardships on parents' psychological functioning (e.g., depression, irritability, and validity). These negative life events account for the high use of physical punishment and absence of reasoning and negotiation. The studies elucidate the notion that children's adjustments to stressful life circumstances are less a matter of their personal characteristics than of the family system in which they function. The author suggests that studies comparing white and black economic hardship fail to take into account the fact that low-income blacks are far more likely than low-income whites to live in poor, isolated neighborhoods lacking resources favorable to parenting and child development. The studies reviewed indicate that repeated failure at active coping results in feelings of powerlessness, which dull the reality of stressors for children playing it cool and getting over. Black males show more social maladaptation than females. These are important issues that need to be addressed beyond the author's quote of the adage that black mothers "love their sons but raise their daughters," which suggests that black girls are more subject to firm, consistent, and supportive discipline.

Schieffelin, B., & Gilmore, P. (Eds.) (1986). *Advances in discourse processes: Vol. 21, The acquisition of literacy: Ethnographic perspectives*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

The authors of this volume share a view of literacy as a social and cultural phenomenon existing between people and connecting individuals to a range of experiences and points in time. They defined literacy as a cultural phenomenon that interacts with certain social processes and is best studied in an ethnographic manner. The essays in this volume focus on the social and cultural contexts and processes involved in the acquisition of literacy. The authors use an ethnographic approach to study socialization for literacy; particular attention is focused on the relationship between attitudes, values, beliefs, and skills that are culturally transmitted to learners in relation to the development of literacy skills. Fundamental to understanding these contexts and processes, according to the authors, are the social relationships and interactions in which an orientation to literacy is presented to novices. The book draws on several cultural variations and examples from groups in places such as Western Samoa, Morocco, and the United States.

Scott-Jones, D. (1987). Mother-as-teacher in the families of high- and low-achieving, low-income black first-graders. *Journal of Negro Education, 56*, 21-34.

The author proposes that, in addition to addressing maternal teaching strategies, studies should look at children's behavior during teaching time because children are not passive learners. The author suggests that children's own behaviors may influence what is learned. In this study, 24 children and their mothers were observed in their homes. Three forms of data were gathered: naturalistic observation, a maternal teaching task (a game), and a maternal interview. Findings from the maternal teaching task suggest that children's ability to perform the task related significantly to the activity, not to their mothers' teaching style. Therefore, the authors suggest that the mothers' teaching styles are a response to rather than a cause of the children's readiness. From the maternal interviews and naturalistic observations, the authors found data to support the conclusion that mothers of children with low-readiness give their children double messages about school success.

Slaughter-Defoe, D., Nakagawa, K., Takanishi, R., & Johnson, D. (1990). Toward cultural/ecological perspectives on schooling and achievement in African- and Asian-American children. *Child Development, 61,* 363-383.

This review traces the history of studies conducted on schooling and achievement for both African- and Asian-American children. The authors state that while the research conducted so far is seen as important, it contains certain methodological flaws and assumptions that confound the information gained from the studies. Most of these studies predict academic achievement for Asian-Americans and academic failure for African Americans, but the studies do not differentiate between African Americans or Asian Americans of varying cultural, language, immigration, and economic backgrounds. The authors stress that the research and policy implications of this review include the need to move toward cultural/ecological theories of achievement, socialization, and development that do not include current societal stereotypes.

Washington, V. (1989). Reducing the risk to young black learners: An examination of race and educational policy. In J. Allen & J. Mason (Eds.), *Risk makers, risk takers, risk breakers: Reducing the risks for young literacy learners* (pp. 281-293). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

Despite community control and court ordered desegregation, the risks of educational failure for young black children remain high, because, as the author states, the real needs and interests of black children are not met in the educational system. The author reviews three areas of research that could link successful school experiences for the black child and public policy. First, the use of intelligence testing and assessment is the basis for many policy actions by government, although the IQ test was not meant to be a measure to determine placement. Second, Head Start seeks to alleviate the intellectual and social risks of the poor by enriching their intellectual environment. However, according to the author, Head Start has failed because it lacks minority teachers and prominent black scholars. Third, compensatory education programs designed in 1960 for minorities by the white majority have not brought about equal educational opportunity. The author concludes that programs and policies to assist children at risk must respond directly to issues of race and racism, since many programs are not sensitive to the needs of black students.

Wong-Fillmore, L. (1990) Latino families and the schools. Unpublished manuscript.

Wong-Fillmore looks at the questions posed by Latino parents: Why are our children turned off? Why aren't the schools doing a better job of educating them? She suggests that children start out as eager learners but that by grade three, most Latino students are in academic distress, performing one or two years below grade level. Wong-Fillmore argues that, historically, the family has been looked upon as the problem when, as she outlines, the school is more to blame, since it has few activities that are culturally relevant to the families' lives. The author describes several programs that connect the spheres of home and the classroom, facilitating a student's successful entry into the world. Examples are the Winters Child Development Center and 17 other foundation centers, which operate on a budget of $19 per child per day. This is for an 11-hour, 9-day program with 2 hot meals. The children are given many opportunities to discover what is involved in literacy, and they begin to read and write when they feel ready. There is involvement and educational opportunities for parents as well. Teaching is based on the Montessori method, and all staff receive yearly intensive training in child development and program management for three weeks and continuous on-the-job support from fellow teachers.

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